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A collection of articles that have appeared in the Junior College Journal, as well as selected articles from Developing Junior Colleges, was compiled in conjunction with the Program With Developing Institutions sponsored by the American Association of Junior Colleges. The purpose of the monograph is to provide guidelines for developing colleges in the areas of administration, faculty and board problems, instruction, curriculum, student personnel, and community services. (MB)

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PWDI

FOCUS ON ACTION

A HANDBOOK FOR DEVELOPING JUNIOR COLLEGES

HOW TO DO IT...HOW TO GET IT DONE...HOW OTHERS DID IT

Edited by Selden Menefee
and Jack Orcutt

Program With Developing Institutions
American Association of Junior Colleges
Washington, D.C.

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INTRODUCTION

Some of the best information on how junior colleges meet their problems and their obligations to the community has been published over the years in the Junior College Journal, official magazine of the American Association of Junior Colleges. Started primarily as a semischolarly journal, it has become the voice of innovation and progress in the junior and community college movement. Unfortunately, articles published in past years are often lost or forgotten, and become fugitive material.

Early in the life of the Program With Developing Institutions, the staff felt a need for a comprehensive document that would bring together some of the best material from the Journal over a period of years so that developing colleges could have in a single booklet key articles of the "how to do it" variety. When this idea was presented to member colleges, it received enthusiastic approval. There was one precedent for this, A Primer for Planners, in which AAJC brought together a group of articles on facilities planning. In the present monograph, we have sought to avoid duplication of that earlier booklet, assembling articles in other areas which would be equally valuable to developing institutions -- such areas as administration, faculty and board problems, instruction, curriculum, student personnel, and community services. In a few instances, we have included short articles from Developing Junior Colleges, the newsletter of this program, to supplement Journal offerings.

Although this book is intended primarily for developing junior colleges associated with our program, we feel it will be valuable to all colleges for a long time to come. We hope that it will alert junior college people to the value of preserving and binding issues of the Junior College Journal, where this is not already done, for future reference.

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Acknowledgment is due John Orcutt, formerly of the staff of the AAJC Program With Developing Institutions and subsequently of the U.S. Office of Education, and to Esperanza Cornejo, Marcie Avram, and Helen Minifie, for their assistance in compiling this book and arranging for its publication.

Selden Menefee, Director,
AAJC Program With Developing Institutions

Washington, D.C.
May, 1969

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CONCERNS AND CAUTIONS

By *Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr.*

". . . going down the educational superhighway hell for leather."

That's the way the community college looked to Russell Lynes, then managing editor of *Harper's* magazine (November 1966).

The impressive pace at which the community college is growing has won the attention of the nation's press both in the news columns and on the editorial pages. They have reported district organization, appointment of presidents, acquisitions of sites, campus dedications, and zooming enrollments. In editorials and letters to the editor, the community has stated hopes for what the institution would (or would not) do and advocates of the college have made their claims of potential and performance.

That the community college is now a big segment of postsecondary education is a fact. That it is still in process of establishing its identity is apparent. That great expectations are held by its adherents is obvious. But the highway is not straight and clear enough to eliminate all uneasiness about the speed and direction, nor to eliminate the need for forethought so that risks can be minimized. Along with its promise, there are disquieting elements in the community college picture which must be faced.

Junior College Growth

One of these is tied to the boom aspects of development. Almost overnight institutions are founded. Enrollments do not simply grow—they multiply. It is not unusual for a district to be established early in the calendar year, a president appointed in the spring, and for the institution to open in temporary quarters in the fall.

In times of emergency, remarkable and unusual efforts are possible. And the option of denying educational opportunity to several hundred or even thousands of students by taking longer to get underway is not an attractive prospect. However, the community and all of those associated with the

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EDITOR'S NOTE:

Preview from Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr. *This Is the Community College.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1968. Copyright © 1968 by Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr. Used by permission.

FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGES

college need to know that sound establishment requires time and thoughtful consideration. A great many people ought to be involved in the process. Haste in the beginning will have its repercussions. The chances of success are improved if a minimum of a year's time is provided and two years is better.

Local Control

Another perplexing problem has its genesis in a kind of economic determinism. Frustrations and defeats brought about through inadequate local tax revenues have moved the community college in its search for funds to much larger district organizations and to state and federal sources. Along with this resort to financial resources farther removed from the community, has gone some element of control. In a few states now, policy determination is largely at the state level and there is some drift, if not purposive movement, in that direction. What does this mean for community involvement and college responsiveness to community needs? The interfusing of community and college has been a distinctive and substantial justification for this kind of institution. Can this be maintained with direction from the state level or for that matter from districts almost as large as some states? How will this work in a metropolitan area where there is one board for a city of several million? If the institution is to continue to be community oriented and community serving, other organizational means are needed so that significant participation in the affairs of the college can be decentralized.

It has not been fully demonstrated that policy determination, of necessity, has its locus where the money is. But it does seem clear that the community college of the future will be a different kind of institution if significant decisions about the college are made without meaningful involvement of the people served by the institution. The necessary quest for sounder financial underpinnings will require accommodation to the value of localism with coaction of college and community.

Curriculum Options

No feature of the community college has more essential implications than its policy of open-door admissions. Without denying the social need, a question must be raised about the capacity of institutions to deliver on the implied promise. Here is an example of reason for concern—a much more diversified fare of educational programs is required than commonly offered at this time. In addition to transfer and occupational programs, general studies may be needed with multiple program options for the students who neither transfer nor aim toward employment as highly skilled technicians. Those students may lack academic ability or motivation (or both) for the increasingly difficult transfer and technical programs.

Dorothy M. Knoell, as a result of her studies of noncollege-bound youth in New York State, proposes in her report, *Toward Educational Opportunity for All,* that such a curriculum have a heavy core of social science content, including psychology and sociology, communication skills laboratories to bring students up to a reasonable level of competence, opportunities for creative endeavors, and training and orientation for the countless beginning jobs which require little specialized knowledge and skill. The curriculum would, in effect, be student oriented, rather than university or career oriented. It would assist the student in discovering what his potential is for education at higher levels and in preparing him to accept gainful employment in a career field.

Dr. Knoell also suggests the increasing need for planning varied programs of exploration, work experience, classroom study, field work, and out-of-class activities. She found that a large number of urban youth would not want to engage in full-time study after high school, even if it were offered without cost and in their home communities. Most acknowledged the need for further education to help them on the job. But, at the same time, most wanted the security of regular employment after high school and the feeling of success which was so often lacking in their high school experience.

From the standpoint of learning, work-study programs of part-time, daytime enrollment in only two or three courses seems more likely to produce good results among the less able urban youth than full-time day programs of 15 units or more, or part-time evening programs after a full day on the job. Successful job experience helps build a more satisfactory self-image, which in turn increases the probability of successful classroom experience.

No Bargain Prices

Remedial programs, a full range of student personnel services, and plenty of faculty time are other necessary ingredients if the educational needs of all who come as a result of the open-door policy are to be met. An educational approach of these dimensions should not be sold to the public on the basis of low cost. Generous financial support is essential. However, it can be justified as a financial investment which will pay off in terms of both individual and community betterment. But the point is no one must be fooled into believing that the open door means the usual college curriculums at community college bargain prices. Nor should the delusion exist that opportunity consists of simply letting the student in. Opportunity involves matching the student with a suitable pattern of learning. If that pattern does not exist, then opportunity does not exist, even if the student is on the registrar's official list.

Each institution needs to determine how comprehensive it can be and how open in admissions policy. However, there is this word of caution—a latent tendency to limit access must not be rationalized in the name of prudence. Educational needs will be met—if not by community colleges then by other kinds of educational institutions. And to be sure, in time, such institutions might be required. But let this be a rational decision by society upon the basis of perceived need and not a result of rigidity in the community college or its failure to convince the community that the proposed breadth of services merits support.

Student Tuition

How much of the financial load should be carried by the student? This is another pressing issue.

As already pointed out, characteristically, community colleges charge little or no tuition. But, mounting costs of many public services, including education, have resulted in intensive investigation of all possible sources of revenue, and recurrently the student is looked to for a larger contribution.

In addition to the obvious reason that larger payments by the student will make more money available to the colleges, there are others given to justify tuition charges. For example, those who most directly benefit from education should shoulder the cost. (This suggests that the individual accrues the greater or even sole benefit.) And, if the student does not pay something he will not appreciate his opportunity; his degree of effort will be proportionate to the money he puts up.

Reasons such as these last ones are largely a matter of conjecture. With regard to benefits, it can be held that a highly complex society requires an enlightened citizenry if sound public policy is to be formulated and if a democratic order is to be maintained. And unless there are people competent in medicine, law, technologies, economic activities, and public service, our cultural aspirations and expectations stand little chance of achievement.

With its many programs, including community services and continuing education, the community college can marshall substantial evidence that the community as a whole benefits through educational opportunity and therefore the most equitable way to finance the services is by public funds.

Many of the current arguments to justify higher charges to the student are remarkably like those used two generations ago to oppose public high schools. The requirements of life now are such that two more years of education are commonly needed and therefore are justified as a public expense. The National Commission on Technology, Automation, and Economic Progress is the most recent in a long line of national commissions to urge that, "a nationwide system of free public education through two years beyond high school should be established."

In some states there are practical difficulties in the immediate elimination of student charges. But the elimination of these charges should be the direction of policy if the community college is to forward the goal of universal educational opportunity and be a means for economic and social mobility.

Once the principle of tuition is established, no matter how small the amount at the outset, almost inexorable pressures will result in gradual but continuous increase. It may be that the degree of opportunity is reduced proportionate to the increase in fees. Therefore, an institution to be truly open door, if we are to push this reasoning to its logical conclusion, will make no financial requirement of the student.

Another hazard for the fast moving community college is fragmentation of the institution and a skewing of its purposes. In most colleges and universities, concepts of educational administration and governance are under test and in process of change. Strains are potentially more acute in the community college for several reasons: the heterogeneity of students and faculty; explosive growth of new institutions resulting in colleges without traditions and established leadership structures; and the evolution of role definitions of faculty, students, and administration in an institution still determining its logical forms of organization—forms that have their basis in perceptions of the job to be done.

Leadership

But this is more than a matter of organization. It is also a problem of leadership. Without doubt, among many issues and concerns, this is one of the most serious, the need for an alert and highly competent leadership throughout the institution so that a productive equilibrium can be maintained.

Careful and orderly development of the institution, effective communication with the community, determination of suitable educational programs, securing the financial means, and accommodation of the forces within the institution toward constructive ends are all possible through able leadership. But the supply falls short of the demand. A number of universities have looked for faculty members of senior grade to head up programs to prepare community college teachers and administrators. These "teachers of teachers" are critically needed.

Most of the states either now have state-level offices with responsibility for community college development or they are establishing such offices. In either case, they are seeking qualified staff. Personnel with community college expertise also are sought by the U.S. Office of Education and by foundations.

Moreover, the current requirement for new community college presidents is well over one hundred each year. And large institutions each require a number of broadly prepared administrative officers in instruction, finance, student personnel, community relations, institutional research, and governmental relations. One of the key leadership responsibilities in the institution is held by the chairman of the department or division and here the shortage is of a crucial character. For many of the top-level posts a game of "musical chairs" is underway. The same names have a way of appearing on the lists of candidates for positions all the way from local institutions to the national scene.

Some feel that the apparent short supply of experienced and able people is not all bad because the effect has been a sharp increase in the level of salaries and prerequisites, but developments in the community colleges urgently require that potential talent in these institutions be identified and cultivated and that large numbers of capable people be recruited. If it were just a matter of filling the positions that exist in newly established and expanding institutions, the problem would be serious enough, but in many ways the course is still being charted and this calls for special qualities.

The efforts to date, including the Kellogg-supported Junior College Leadership Program, have helped, but they are not enough to show a net gain on the problem. There should be no doubt in anybody's mind that developmental activities now are necessary which go far beyond the scale of previous attempts. This calls for participation by both governmental and private interests, but it also means that in each institution every responsible person is under obligation to look for talent and to encourage its development. The whole field will be served.

Community college leadership needs to reach beyond its own institutions. As part of the worldwide educational community, its spokesmen must be articulate about their experience and report to colleagues with different missions in education. One possible outcome would be adaption of the community college idea to unmet educational needs in other cultures.

Institutional Self-Concept

In the early days of the junior college, the leading theorists were university presidents—among them Harper of the University of Chicago, Tappan of the University of Michigan, and Folwell of the University of Minnesota. Later there was Conant of Harvard University and professors like Koos of the University of Chicago and Eels of Stanford. Now there is unquestioned need for those who know the community college well through their own administrative practice and teaching experience to step up communication with educational leadership both nationally and internationally. And this leads to a final expression of concern, the institution's concept of itself.

No more important factor than this exists in determining the direction and significance of community college development. Nothing will further its work more than to recognize and accept its own individuality in a context of relationships. The community college is necessary. It has emerged out of societal needs and aspirations. These are the sources of its identity. And its greatest worth will be achieved by confidently taking hold of its special assignment as an institution in its own right within a complete program of educational services throughout the nation.

The community college is a member of the educational family—a member that needs to share in family conversation and to carry its part of the total family responsibility. Not only will it benefit from this association, it has something to give.

Author Clifford Erickson, left, with Dr. Gleazer and Dr. Shannon of the AAJC staff at a recent Association meeting.

TO THE NEW JUNIOR COLLEGE TRUSTEE

A President Speaks from Experience Regarding the Policy-Making Role Of Trustees

By Clifford G. Erickson

Each year a thousand or more American laymen accept new responsibilities as junior college trustees, about half of them serving on new boards planning to open community or junior colleges. The lay college board of trustees has deep roots in American tradition; yet the role and responsibility of the trustee and of the college board are often misunderstood.

This is a message drawn from experience; it is addressed to the new trustee to assist him in understanding his important role at the policy level and to point out pitfalls such as the ever-present temptation to move into the administrative role.

1. Your board represents the community public interest in higher education. As college trustees, you represent the community public interest in a twofold manner. You bring to the college campus the hopes and inspirations of your community for higher education. As lay persons from a number of walks of life, you represent a kind of microcosm of the larger constituency. Your insights can help shape the college's educational goals and programs.

Secondly, you represent the college to your community. Representing the respected leadership of the community, you can interpret the college to your constituency. Knowing the traditions of the community and of the campus, you can protect the institution from improper pressures or attack and particularly from outside interference with the teaching function. Because of your community leadership status, you can accomplish this interpretation and defense in ways which would be impossible for the faculty or administration.

2. Choosing a president is your most important job. These are days of tension in higher education; there is a militancy among students and teachers. During this period college boards of trustees are having some difficulty in recruiting and holding key administrators. The American Council on Education reports 300 vacancies in the office of college president, 1,000 in the office of dean.

Without question your number one assignment is to select a president, to encourage and support him when he is serving effectively, and to remove him when he is not.

You should seek advice of the faculty or consultants or advisory committees, but in the last analysis, the final decision is yours to make. You must define the role for the office and select a president qualified by training and temperament for your particular college situation. Without a climate of mutual trust and support between the board and the president, the work of each will suffer, and the college will suffer as well.

You can allow a new president some flexibility in choosing his administrative staff if tenure status for administrators is limited to their alternate roles as teachers or counselors.

(A good procedure for choosing a president was set forth by Chancellor Bill J. Priest of the Dallas County Junior College District in an article in the April 1965 *Junior College Journal.*)

3. Your board should make policy and delegate administration. Having chosen a president, a wise board will ask the president to formulate policy questions for its consideration and action. It will delegate to the president broad powers for operating the institution. Though a college is not a business venture, the usual distinctions between policy and operations pertain except that a college does not measure success by net profit—its cost efficiency is in units of educational service, in *spending* money wisely.

If the board deliberately or unwittingly begins to move into the administrative process, the institution will soon be in difficulty from which it is not easily extricated.

Policy questions include: admission policies; introduction of new programs and services; approval of appointments, contracts, and resignations; promotions in salary and/or rank; purchasing and other fiscal policies; budget adoption and revision; personnel policies; tuition and fee schedules; awarding of major contracts; approval of construction specifications and plans. A competent president and cooperative board will develop the sensitivity needed for distinguishing between matters of policy and administration.

4. Your board should approve the budget but delegate its management to the president. A wise board will ask the president to recommend a budget and policies for managerial and fiscal controls of business operations. It will delegate the management of the budget to the president. An outside auditor should be appointed to verify the management of the budget. An attorney can advise on legal matters affecting finance.

When the board has approved a budget which reflects the aims of the institution and has adopted policies for its management, it will delegate day-by-day operations to the president and his business office.

The board can expect periodic reports of financial operations and the opportunity to approve any revisions of the budget needed to adjust it to actual experience.

5. Your board and president should seek ways to maintain effective communications. Your board should welcome opportunities to share in the cultural life of the campus and to meet students and faculty in social gatherings.

The president should arrange regular information reports to keep the board advised on current progress and curriculum planning, faculty growth and development, student personnel services, and community relationships.

The college president should arrange opportunities for members of his staff and faculty to participate in preparation and presentation of reports to the board in order that mutual trust be developed among board, administration, and faculty.

The development of a faculty senate or council and a student senate or council can provide avenues of communication and involve faculty and students in insitutional life and in formulation of educational policies. Many colleges are experimenting with student membership on faculty advisory committees to improve internal communication and to tap the insights of students on important questions.

6. Written reports and policy recommendations can focus the board's deliberations on policy. If the president will prepare and mail in advance written reports of progress and background information for carefully formulated policy recommendations, the board will be able to use its time most efficiently at board meetings. Information can be communicated quickly and effectively. Time for discussion can be devoted to the most critical questions affecting educational or public policy.

Several advantages accrue to this procedure. The members of the press, faculty, and student body receive a transcript of background information and formulated recommendations. Newly adopted policies can be readily incorporated into the minutes of the proceedings and into policy manuals which guide the operation of the college.

Just as the president provides an opportunity for the board to study his recommendations in advance, so the board should refer suggestions to him for study and for the formulation of recommendations. Policy questions initiated by the board deserve the same deliberate procedure as those proposed by the president.

7. Establish early policies on academic freedom and institutional integrity. Policies governing institutional integrity and academic freedom will be needed when the college, its board, its faculty, or its student body comes under attack. These important questions of policy cannot be established objectively during a period of stress.

Thus, it is prudent for boards to meet these questions early in order to have established policy to guide the college in its relationships with faculty, students, and community.

Many colleges have adopted the statement on academic freedom and responsibility first published by the American Association of University Professors in 1940 and adopted by many other learned societies and colleges. Some colleges also have adopted the 1966 statement on institutional integrity of the Federation of Accrediting Associations. At the student level the *Joint Statement on Rights and Freedoms of Students,* prepared by a national group with representation from the American Association of Junior Colleges, is being considered by junior college student and faculty senates for recommendation to boards of trustees for adoption as institutional policy.

8. Recognize the college as a human organization —maintain mutual trust. One of the most common pitfalls in board-administration-faculty relationships derives from failure to recognize the humanity of the college organization.

Complaints and criticism are a normal part of the life of any human organization. These will befall board, administration, faculty, and students. If there is silence—beware. If the voices are too many or too insistent, there may be pathology. Avoid responding to each plea. It is essential that members of the board resist the temptation to serve as arbitrators of complaints.

A policy should be adopted very early on the handling of complaints. Board members should advise complainants that their reports are routinely referred to the president for resolution and that those which require hearing by the board would be so referred after appropriate investigation. Due consideration should be given to the confidential nature of some matters to protect the good names of all concerned. Under this category come faculty and staff gripes, pleas of job applicants who contact the board after unsuccessful interviews with the administration, complaints by students or parents concerning the fairness of grades or actions of faculty probation and exclusion committees, and charges by vendors who are unsuccessful bidders for orders.

A good procedure for handling complaints can do much to maintain a tone of high morale and human dignity for teacher, student, administrator, and board member. It can preserve the good will of the community at large.

9. Use private in preference to public channels for personal criticism. If policies and reports are in writing and mailed to trustees in advance, the trustee who has questions or criticisms which affect individuals can route them through the board chairman or to the president for private discussion and resolution before the public meeting. Such a procedure can assist the board to have public discussion center upon issues rather than personalities. It can also minimize controversy which may increase the length and "interest" of news stories and increase tensions among board, administration, faculty, and students and cause public confidence in the college to suffer.

A president would not hold long a staff or his own position if he were to use the open faculty meeting as a place to correct his associates. Yet board members sometimes forget that they, too, have a responsibility for good human relations—they set the tone. Sometimes the prospect of quotation in the newspaper is more tantalizing than preservation of good relations with the staff.

10. Courtesy and mutual respect foster good board-administration relationships. It is essential that the board never convene without its president or his representative except to consider his salary or fitness to serve. By the same token, the president should remember that he serves the entire board, and that he should avoid private conferences on substantive matters with individuals or smaller groups of the board unless equal opportunity is given to all board members. The board chairman and president may, of course, confer on the agenda and plans for presenting matters for board deliberation.

Only one person, the president, should be directly responsible to the board. The president may arrange to have deans, business managers, and other faculty members make reports to the board, thereby extending his personal reports to the board.

11. Board actions and decisions should be taken only when convened formally as a board. Board members will be wise to avoid prejudgment of issues and commitments concerning their future voting. A board member should recognize that the position he holds before a board meeting may be tempered by new information presented and by the views expressed by his respected colleagues of the board. Free discussion and open-mindedness until the time for the roll call vote will insure the wisest decisions.

Few situations will create cleavages in the board like prior commitments of board members revealed publicly to newspaper, administration, or staff. This kind of prior disclosure of opinion stifles open discussion and the ability of the board to come to mutual understanding and compromise when needed. A specific example of this will come in item 13 below.

12. Make prior plans to handle student demonstrations. This is an anxious day on college campuses of the nation. The community college—more closely rooted in the community, serving students more closely tied with home, church, clubs, and social agencies—has not yet been plagued with student unrest that seems characteristic of the resident college and university campus.

Nevertheless, it is prudent at this time to make plans for the kind of action that will be taken to handle student demonstrations or occupation of campus properties.

Board, administration, and law enforcement officers can work effectively and with mutual understanding if policies and plans are worked out in advance of the emergency. Carefully formulated plans executed promptly may resolve issues early and minimize disruption of education services.

The example of Denver University reported in the press on May 7 is worthy of consideration. President Mitchell served notice to students occupying the student center that expulsion penalities would be invoked in thirty minutes on those who did not wish to resolve questions under consideration by due process with student and faculty senates. Those few who continued the demonstration after thirty minutes were removed by police. The student body as a whole supported the president and his plea for resolution of the problems through existing channels *after* the resumption of normal activity.

13. Avoid hasty response to controversial situations. The best response for a board is often silence or "I have no comment until the question has been studied and the president has made a report to the board."

Two examples will illustrate. The father of a community college student read a modern novel which was required reading for an English literature course and demanded that the book be proscribed from the curriculum. After writing to and conferring with the dean, he wrote to the editor of a newspaper. A controversy was developed in cartoon, news, and editorial columns. Board members fanned the flames by public comments critical of the book and its choice by the staff. Voices were raised in the city council and state legislature. When the board convened to receive a report by the president and dean, which placed the whole controversy in its proper perspective, the board passed by a 9 to 0 vote a motion to *commend* and support the administration and faculty. The issue faded from sight.

Another public school board recently responded within hours to a demonstration of Afro-American students against a teacher in an Illinois city. A special meeting was called to hear the pleas of the demonstrators. The teacher was transferred to another school. The following day the board realized it had not even given a hearing to the teacher to hear his version of the controversy.

Take time. Allow your administrator to handle the administrative aspects of the situation; give him time to evaluate the situation, report the facts to you, and recommend new policies as needed.

14. Avoid the use of internal advisers. A sure way to polarize the board, administration, faculty, or all three is to allow members of the staff to serve as special advisers on a confidential basis. A board following this practice in a Midwestern state has suffered a succession of presidents and a cluster of problems that seem to defy solution. The special advisers inevitably fall outside of the range of internal discipline and team effort. Judgments on individual effectiveness of the advisers and of others in the organization become clouded by the special lines of communication—the advisers may mark a status beyond criticism; the evaluations through normal channels are compromised by those of the special advisers. Mutual trust is lost which adversely affects morale and operations.

15. Use outside consultants to take "heat" on some matters likely to stir public controversy. It is in the interest of the life of the college to avoid having the board or administration become the target of public tensions on issues which may not be primarily educational. Such a question is college site selection within a larger metropolitan area or in a district with several population centers of equal magnitude. If the board receives a consultant's report on site selection, it can present it for public response. If there is serious reaction, reports of other consultants can be received. Concurrence of several consultants can be persuasive to the board and to the community. During this series of events, tensions can be centered on the consultant reports rather than on the board or administration.

16. Consider carefully the appropriate role for the board in salary deliberations. One of our problem areas worthy of careful study centers on appropriate methods for working through salary proposals. Faculty welfare and promotion committees may work with the president leading to recommendations for salary schedules or ranges to the board. Some colleges arrange to have a small committee with equal representation of board, administration, and faculty prepare proposals for salary schedules or ranges. There is general agreement that if salary talks are in the collective bargaining format, the "management" side of the table should not include board members or president. This middle ground should be handled by specialists who may be subordinates of the president and who have the help of expert legal counsel. Recommendations are usually routed to the board for approval and to the faculty for concurrence.

17. Avoid standing committees of the board. If the board remains a policy-making board, all members should participate in deliberations on policy questions. Standing committees usually become administrative committees. They tend to create decision-making boards within the board and to polarize deliberations. It is better to appoint *ad hoc* or task force committees of the board which study, report findings, and disband, or the board may convene as a committee of the whole for information and study sessions on important policy questions.

I would like to offer several references for study. These will give additional information out of which boards can formulate roles and responsibilities for their own situations.

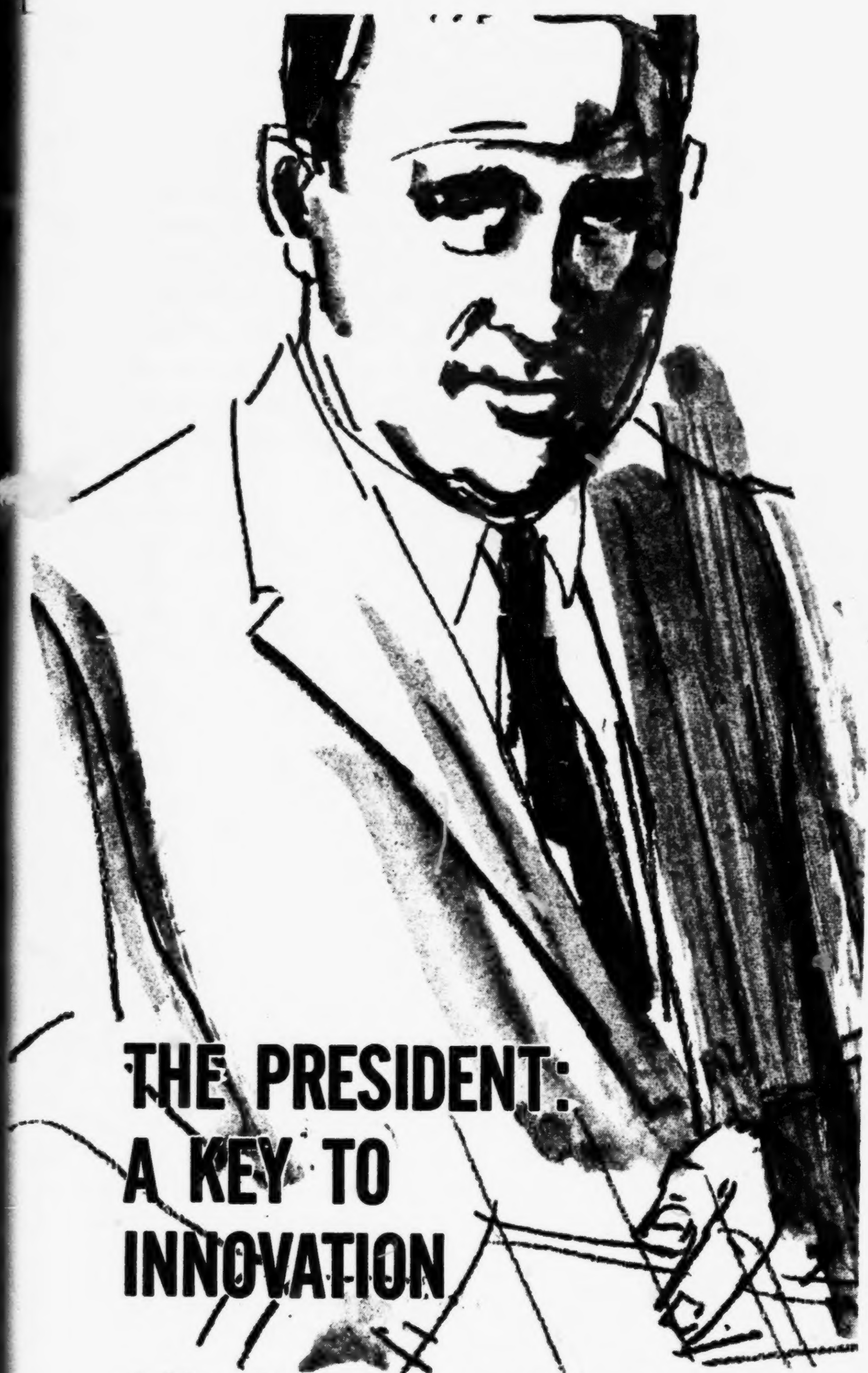
1. "Ten Commandments for Trustees" is an article by George Hall in the April 1966 issue of the *Junior College Journal.*

2. *The Role of The Governing Board,* by Algo Henderson, was published in October 1967 by the Association of Governing Boards of Universities and Colleges, 1785 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C.

3. *The Role of the College and New Trustee* is a summary of a discussion by the trustees of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in November 1961. It is available at 589 Fifth Avenue, New York City.

4. *Community College Boards of Trustees: An Annotated Bibliography* was published in 1967 by the Center for the Development of Community College Education at the University of Washington in Seattle.

Boards of trustees have before them a significant social responsibility in higher education. May the work be fruitful and an avenue for much personal satisfaction.



THE PRESIDENT: A KEY TO INNOVATION

A New Study of 233 Public Junior Colleges Indicates the Importance of the Chief Administrator's Personal Attitude

By William K. Ramstad

Who innovates? A study[1] recently completed by the author indicates that the personal attitude of the chief administrative officer toward experimental programs was the most significant single factor in the process of adoption or nonadoption of such programs.

For the purposes of the study information was gathered from the chief administrative officers of 233 public junior colleges in the United States. The purposes of the questionnaire were (1) to measure the extent of the experimentation relating to specific staff utilization practices underway in junior colleges, (2) to analyze the reasons for the nonadoption of specific experimental programs, and (3) to determine the effect of various environmental conditions on such experimentation.

Method

The instrument consisted of three parts. Part A asked for a report of the status of each of five experimental programs. The chief administrative officer selected the best answer, one that most nearly described the status of the particular technique, from the following:

1. Have adopted
2. Planning to adopt
3. May adopt
4. Probably will not adopt
5. Definitely will not adopt

Part B of the instrument required that the respondent indicate the importance, on a seven-point scale, of each of the following fifteen factors as they affected his attitude toward adoption.

The following were predicted to represent the administrator's personal evaluation of the technique.

1. Just a fad
2. Other things with higher priority
3. I don't like it
4. Insufficient substantiating research
5. Not educationally sound
6. Contrary to philosophy
7. Not suitable for our type of program
8. Question merits of technique
9. Creates staff jealousies

The following items were predicted to represent situational factors.

1. Lack of funds
2. Lack of proper space
3. Lack of community support
4. Lack of staff support
5. Lack of governing board support
6. Lack of trained staff

The following descriptive statistics were obtained from each of the participating colleges.

1. Enrollment—full-time day school equivalent
2. Location—large city, suburb, small town or rural area
3. Availability of staff
4. Type of curriculum—per cent of students in transfer and terminal programs
5. Per student cost—annual per student cost, exclusive of transportation costs and capital outlay

The questionnaire dealt with five types of staff utilization programs.

1. *Team teaching:* An arrangement whereby two or more teachers cooperatively plan for, instruct, and evaluate one or more class groups.
2. *Class size variations:* Some classes of ninety or more students are regularly scheduled. These classes are regularly divided into sections of fifteen or less for small group discussion work. In addition, learning facilities

(laboratories, shops, art rooms, etc.) are made available to students doing independent work.

3. *Teacher aides:* Paid or volunteer assistants are available to work in the college or at home in order to assume some of the duties conventionally handled by teachers. (Clerks, student aides, lay readers, laboratory assistants, etc.)

4. *Language laboratories:* An electronically equipped laboratory is used to provide recordings of native speakers to assist in teaching of foreign languages.

5. *Television:* Closed circuit, a commercial channel, or an educational channel is used as a regular part of the instructional program.

Results

The study was undertaken to determine if there were descriptive statistics—enrollment, location, availability of staff, type of curriculum, and per student cost—that would prove to be associated with the adoption of experimental programs.

A second part of the study hypothesized that the personal attitude of the chief administrative officer toward experimental programs in public junior colleges was the most significant single factor in the process of adoption or nonadoption of such practices.

The reasons, or attitudes, were factored by means of the varimax method of factor analysis. Correlations were computed and factor loadings determined.

The twenty variables—nine attitudinal, six situational, and five environmental—were further processed by a multiple regression program in order to determine the best predictor of nonadoption.

Enrollment: Although for five experimental programs the colleges with enrollments of more than 900 full-time students showed a higher percentage of adoption, other colleges were giving careful consideration to experimental programs in the study.

Location: For four of the five programs, a higher percentage of adoption was indicated in colleges located in large cities. In the case of teacher aides, suburban colleges showed a higher rate of adoption.

Availability of staff: In four programs a higher percentage of adoption was evidenced in colleges not affected by the teacher shortage. The fifth program, teacher aides, showed almost equal adoption by schools having sufficient teachers available and those affected by the shortage.

Type of curriculum: For team teaching, class size variations, teacher aide programs, and television use, very little difference in rate of adoption appeared between colleges categorizing themselves as having a transfer program and those with a terminal curriculum. Transfer colleges tended to show a higher adoption rate when reporting on language laboratory use. It would be assumed that terminal programs would not offer as much foreign language work as transfer curriculums.

Cost per A.D.A.: The "$401 to $600" colleges had the highest percentage of adoption in the case of teacher aide and language laboratory programs. The "$601 to $800" institutions had more television, and the "over $800" junior colleges had adopted team teaching and class size variations techniques at a higher rate. Cost would not appear to be strongly associated with broad experimentation.

The hypothesis of the study was substantiated for four of the five experimental programs. In each of these four programs, team teaching, class size variations, teacher aides, and language laboratories—a higher correlation was shown between nonadoption and the attitude reported by the chief administrator toward the particular technique than between nonadoption and some situational concern such as lack of funds, lack of staff, or lack of space.

In the case of team teaching, the correlation was .40, the highest situational correlation was .25. In class size, the correlation was .46, with the highest situational correlation being .16.

In the use of teacher aides, the correlation between nonadoption and the chief administrator's attitude toward the program was .46—the highest situational correlation, .26. For language laboratories, the correlation was .60, and the highest situational correlation was .17.

In the case of television, the hypothesis was not sustained. The correlation between nonadoption and the administrator's attitude was .33, while the correlation for the situational factors was .39. It would appear that nonadoption of television was the result of lack of funds rather than lack of administrative support.

The multiple regression program substantiated the findings of the factor analysis. The personal attitude of the chief administrative officer continued to be the best predictor of nonadoption for four of the five experimental programs.

Conclusions

On the basis of this study, it would appear that while some situational factors occasionally would serve as predictors, individuals or organizations, interested in promoting experimental programs that would purport to increase the efficiency of the professional teacher in the participating colleges in the study, should recognize that the personal attitude of the chief administrative officer was the most important single factor to be considered.

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[1] Ramstad, William K. "A Study of Staff Utilization Experimentation in Selected Public Junior Colleges." Unpublished doctor's dissertation, Stanford University, Stanford, 1963. 122 pages.

By Bill J. Priest

SELECTING A COLLEGE PRESIDENT

"It is as important a decision as any board can make. On this decision hinges the character of leadership of the school systems affected for years to come."

Thus the 1960 American Association of School Administrators' yearbook describes the task of selecting a chief school administrator. It is a task facing an ever-increasing number of junior college boards of trustees. With the rapid growth of the junior college movement, the importance of securing the best available talent for the key position of chief administrator cannot be overemphasized.

Although the observations and suggestions that follow are intended primarily for junior college boards, the principles which they reflect no doubt have relevancy to administrators in general, both inside and outside the ranks of education.

There is always a risk of being too prescriptive in giving procedural advice. There is, also, the danger of being so ambiguous and philosophical that the advice becomes ineffectual. An attempt is made here to strike a useful balance between these two extremes.

The typical, new governing board facing the assignment of selecting a college president finds itself in a situation which is somewhat less than ideal. The trustees are usually community leaders who may have had no previous direct contact with the junior college movement. This means that they are functioning without the man on whom they will subsequently lean most heavily for leadership and orientation.

He must be selected and employed before the board and the college can begin to function effectively. Except in small communities, the board members typically do not know each other well and have not yet developed the smooth working relationships which are so desirable when tackling a project of this high magnitude and importance. Very early in the selection process they may begin to feel pressures from vested interests to appoint a college president whose views are in accord with the goals of a particular pressure group.

The assignment calls for a high level of professionalism and mutual respect on the part of the board members. They should, all the while, keep in sharp focus the long-range goals of the institution they have been chosen to govern.

This fact suggests that the first step should be to identify these long-range goals. They will be closely related to the community characteristics and the philosophy of administration of the college. Both factors are important in determining the type of person who should be selected. Board members must also become acquainted with legal controls which have fixed certain objectives for all public community colleges in their particular state.

One useful approach is to develop a list of key questions, answers to which will help clarify what board members want in the way of a college president.

Following are several examples of such key questions:

1. What are the major objectives of the college?
2. Are there peculiar local factors which will affect the type of person being sought?
3. Is the board seeking a man who will make a career as chief administrator of the college or do they want a special job done (i.e. a building program) by a person who has great ability in this particular field, but who may not be a generalist?
4. What role does the board expect the president to play in the administration of the college? Is the objective to obtain a president who will supply strong educational leadership to the college, including recommendations on future plans, or is it to employ a person to implement plans which have already crystallized?

The second step in the search normally should be to develop a statement of formal criteria, including qualifications desired of applicants for the position. Usually these qualifications can be grouped into three or four major categories, such as academic training and certification, experience, personal characteristics, and educational philosophy.

The extent of detail in the criteria statement depends upon local desires and the mandates inherent in answers to the "key questions" developed to guide the board. However, it is advisable to remain flexible, and keep the qualifications list fairly general to avoid eliminating potentially strong candidates. An applicant may become available who does not meet in every respect a very precise list of qualifications, but whose excellence in some areas may more than offset deficiencies in others. It may be desirable to prepare a brochure which supplies pertinent facts for prospective applicants. These facts may, in turn, serve as a preliminary screening device.

Following is a sample statement of qualifications prepared by the board of trustees of Contra Costa Junior College District in California to assist them in a recent search for a new chief administrator:

A. *Academic training and credential*

1. Possess Ph.D. or Ed. D. degree or a national reputation and experience which would justify waiver of degree.
2. Hold, or be eligible for, a California administrative credential which authorizes service at the junior college level.

B. *Experience*

1. At least five years of highly successful administrative experience, preferably top level, in a multicampus system, and preferably in junior college; experience in a college or university also favorably regarded.
2. Experience in working directly with a board of education in a district with complex administrative problems inherent in a district in a metropolitan area.
3. Experience and demonstrated leadership in working with community groups. Competence in the field of finance and educational and physical plant planning.
4. A breadth of experience and competence in working with faculty and citizens in meeting educational issues and planning the development of an educational program.

C. *Personal characteristics and commitments*

1. A firm commitment to the open and flexible nature of the junior college as an institution serving students with diverse abilities and purposes.
2. A commitment to academic freedom, and enthusiasm for being part of an intellectual environment.
3. A commitment to the idea that the individual junior college should develop a distinctive philosophy and character within the framework of the system; that in this process cooperative effort is essential with faculties participating with the presidents in the decision-making process, especially when it relates to instruction.
4. An ability to define goals and programs, to delegate responsibility, deal justly with those with whom he is associated and to stand on principle while being flexible in developing a program or meeting an issue.
5. Age preferably between thirty-five and fifty-five.

As soon as there is agreement among board members on a description of "the ideal college president" for the institution, as spelled out in a statement of qualifications and other selection criteria, the next step is to begin the actual search.

Sources of Junior College Presidents

The big question at this point is, "Where is the best man likely to be found?" The job should be listed immediately with the educational placement offices of major universities throughout the country. These offices will nominate candidates and/or notify potential applicants of the position. An examination should be made of professional association rosters, including those of state, regional, and national junior college associations. The lists may produce names of desirable candidates whom the board may invite to apply.

A procedure that has been successfully employed by many boards is the establishment of a screening committee composed of junior college specialists from universities and/or leaders from state and national junior college associations. These consultants should be well-acquainted with top personnel in the junior college field. Among institutions with junior college specialists on their faculties are the ten universities which operate the Junior College Leadership Programs. Fees for such consultants may vary but are likely to be approximately $100 per day, plus expenses.

The trustees may or may not wish to give directives to the screening committee concerning the number of "finalists" it wishes recommended for personal interviews by the board. But it is unreasonable to expect a large number of applicants to assume the expense of reporting for a personal interview. Three to five candidates may be an optimum number for the board to interview personally. Such number may be invited to confer with the board, with the travel expense borne by the board.

In addition to its service in narrowing the field, the screening committee may encourage the submission of applications from prospects who meet the criteria for the position set by the board.

It is appropriate at this point to suggest a number of pitfalls which a board of trustees should avoid during the process of locating and selecting a president. These include:

1. Injudicious comments to the press regarding the search.
2. Public release of names of persons under consideration.

3. Unilateral action by individual trustees without delegation of authority from the entire board.

4. Setting of a timetable which does not permit time for adequate search and deliberation.

5. Failure to conform to the procedure agreed upon, thus creating confusion and uncertainty among both applicants and the general public.

6. Failure by the board to accept responsibility for making a decision—over-involvement of lay advisers.

7. Committing the college to various policies or personnel appointments prior to selection of and receipt of advice from the chief administrative officer.

8. Failure to respect the ethics of the education profession (i.e., expecting applicant to engage in procedures that include elements which are crass or professionally offensive).

The Final Decision

After criteria have been developed, a screening committee retained, and applications sought and received, the next step in the selection process is reaching a final decision on the individual to whom the board wishes to make an offer of employment. The decision can be made more easily if, after its deliberations, the screening committee or its chairman meets with the trustees for a detailed briefing on the whys and wherefores of its recommendations. The meeting is normally followed by the board's thorough examination of leading applicants' qualifications.

One school of thought suggests that the board may gain access to more highly qualified talent if it elects, after extensive research and study of the prospects, to invite only the top candidate for an interview. This individual is invited to confer with the board with the understanding that he will be employed subject to a satisfactory interview and a meeting of minds among the board members and himself.

This approach is based on the supposition that while outstanding administrators are not at any given time looking for a new position and therefore may not apply, they will often respond to a well-defined invitation to an interview, especially if the position is sufficiently attractive in terms of such things as salary, growth potential, professional environment.

Whether the board decides to interview one or several finalists there are a number of important benefits in a personal interview both for the trustees and for the applicants.

Many factors are revealed in an interview which are not apparent from personnel papers. These include an individual's dress, grooming, manners, articulateness, personality, and attitudes. The interview also provides a preview of the interaction among the personalities which are destined to play the key roles in the development of the new college.

It should be noted that the interview is not a one-way street. The board has certain important responsibilities in the meeting. The man it wants very likely has other job opportunities and he may need to be convinced that he should cast his professional lot with the board interviewing him.

In fairness to the college, the prospective president and the board, it is advisable for the interviewers to be gracious but forthright. Both the board and the college president must be in agreement on fundamental goals or excessive conflict and impairment of the educational program is inevitable.

Contract Negotiations

After the board has reached a final decision on its candidate and he has given tentative acceptance, there remains the matter of a contract to be negotiated. Terms of the contract will, of course, depend upon the outcome of negotiations designed to produce terms which are satisfactory and acceptable to both parties. Provisions normally included in such a contract are the amount of annual salary, fringe benefits which may be tax advantages for the president at little or no additional cost to the college, the period of contract, provisions for periodic review of the contract, and provisions for involvement of the president in state, regional, and national junior college activities.

Once the contract has been negotiated and signed, the board should not overlook one or two additional steps. The first is a public announcement of its decision. The selection of a college president is significant news and will be reported by local news media. The announcement should show that the trustees have made an important decision and why they are confident it will work well. The fanfare accompanying the selection announcement should conform with community mores.

As a final step in the selection process, the board should not forget to thank the individuals and agencies who have helped in the quest, and return any materials which have been borrowed from them. Unsuccessful candidates should be notified promptly and thanked for their interest and cooperation.

It is desirable to keep a record of the campaign to locate a president. A short, written critique for the files will be valuable if and when the board is faced with the task of filling the position again.

The selection of a president may well be the most important decision the board will ever make. May it be made wisely, for the institution's future will reflect the wisdom of the choice.

Excellence and Smallness Are Not Synonymous

By Stuart E. Marsee

WHEN IS LARGE TOO BIG?

Recently I received a letter from a dean of education of a major university. He stated:

> From time to time, I have the opportunity to discuss informally, or refer to in a major address, problems related to junior college planning. Obviously, I do not propose to be an expert in this field, but I do enjoy presenting a point of view. The most persistent question which arises in my experience has to do with enrollment. There is much concern among those interested in junior colleges about so-called optimum enrollment and maximum enrollment (full-time equivalent students). I have sort of crystallized on an idea that, in a typical situation, optimum enrollment could run in the range of 2,500-3,000 while maximum enrollment for each facility or campus might be around 3,500. I realize full well that blanket statements cannot be made, because there are so many variables to take into account.

The dean then requested that I express what I believed to be ". . . optimum and maximum enrollments in typical situations, or, indeed if any such number can be used nationally." My first inclination was to dictate a brief letter, but in view of the fact that this is a recurring question, it seems worthwhile to prepare a "position paper."

Generalizations

Everyone has heard the quotation "that all generalizations are faulty including this one." In athletics, as youths, we were told to shoot with two hands before trying with one and that weight lifting makes one muscle-bound and a poor athlete. We were told that if we trained too hard we would "go stale." If one were 6′2″ he had it made as a center in basketball. None of these rules would be acceptable today.

How well I remember a discussion with my buddies when I was a senior in college. We were talking about financial fulfillment. It was generally accepted by this group of about a dozen fellows that we would all agree to a lifetime compact guaranteeing a lifetime standard of living which could be purchased with $2,400 by those 1939 standards Standards and incomes have changed!

Once upon a time, I had life figured out. The idea family would include a loving wife and four children. Two boys and two girls, born two years apart, of alternate sexes. The family would live in an ideal-sized town of 5,000 which would have one high school of 400 and a public library. Everyone would walk home for lunch. All would have an opportunity to participate in community life, but in different ways.

I well remember appearing on a panel in 1958 with "an expert" from the California State Department of Education who was of the opinion that California public junior colleges should have a maximum size of 1,800.

A colleague of mine, in his doctoral dissertation, arrived at the conclusion that high schools should be limited to 1,600. He is now superintendent of a high school district with several outstanding high schools—all with enrollments in excess of his one-time ideal.

About fifteen years ago a publication was widely circulated in California which recommended that campus sizes for junior colleges be established with a base acreage of thirty-five, plus one acre for each 100 full-time students.

A standard for elementary schools, in the opinion of many experts, would call for a minimum of ten acres with a maximum enrollment of about 500. Of course, it would be a neighborhood school within walking distance of all children and, preferably, with no busy interesections for children to cross.

High schools would, as has been stated, be limited to an enrollment of 1,600. The preferred size would be forty acres.

Who knows? Perhaps the standards which have been mentioned are correct. The fact remains that they cannot and do not prevail in many outstanding schools and community colleges in America. The problem is to provide the maximum opportunity of excellence for students within the realistic limits provided by all circumstances. A paramount question has to be, "Will change improve educational opportunities from an overall standpoint?" Not the least of many concerns is whether multiple campuses would provide equally high quality educational opportunity for all students concerned. If not, what would be a reasonable "time lapse" before equality is achieved and what are the compensating factors that justify the change? The generalization of the merit of small size campuses can not alone stand the test for justifying additional campuses.

Ability to finance, availability of land, geographic size of the district, and community support of a program of multiple campuses are factors influencing decisions on the size of an institution. Also, the future fluctuation of populations feeding into the school is important. Are there factors in the offing which are predicted to syphon off enrollment?

The Public Junior College

The typical California community college is open to all high school graduates or to those eighteen years of age or over who can profit from the education. It is tuition free. About 80 per cent of its support comes from local finances and 20 per cent from state and other sources. It has no dormitories. Students live off campus, independent of the college. Most students work full or part time, commute in their own automobiles, and have social contacts independent of the college. Generally, the student intends to pursue a college upper-division transfer program, a technical or a business program, or he may attend with no career objective. Those who transfer to other institutions of higher education may anticipate entering a graduate program. As is the case for increasing numbers of students in all institutions, they will not complete requirements for the bachelor of arts degree in four consecutive academic years.

The student who achieves a superior academic record will continue to do so at his upper-division transfer institution. A small per cent will be interested in student government offices. An increasing number of students are becoming active in special-interest clubs and other service activities.

There is no evidence to indicate that the activity pattern of the typical student in the large or small community college varies greatly. Visits to other institutions, participation with accreditation teams, and discussions with peers indicate that there is a great similarity of activity for both small and large junior colleges.

The average age of the junior college student is higher than the freshman and sophomore of the four-year college or university Many are late bloomers and it is a chore to develop an interest in participation in, or issues of, student government. An increasing number are academically eligible and financially able to enter the state universities. They attend the junior college by personal choice. The majority are terminal students or have a university objective which can only be achieved by proof of satisfactory accomplishment in a junior college. They have jobs to do and their purposes are serious.

Beautiful gifts come in small packages. They also come in large packages. As a president of a large college which will continue to grow, I am going to stress the advantages of largeness. (However, I am not unaware of the many advantages given for smallness, too.)

Excellence and smallness are not synonymous. We all know about the high quality of small Reed and of large Harvard. We also know large and small institutions which have not achieved greatness.

The philosophy and goals of an institution are important. They are guidelines which blaze the trail toward high accomplishment. They are developed by faculty, student, community, and trustee. As startling as it may seem, a review of the philosophy and goals of most institutions will indicate they cannot be insured by the small size of the institution alone.

Largeness does not bring neglect any more than does smallness assure excellence. The major arguments, and justifiably so, against a large institution are that the classes are too large, the teacher-pupil relationship is impersonal, counseling is inadequate, and the campus is too crowded—generally meaning that parking facilities are inadequate. But these same conditions exist in many small institutions.

It is wrong to be big, or small, if provisions are not made for reasonably sized classes; for offices where the student and teacher can confer in private; and for adequate staff, both in numbers and training, for pupil personnel services. The latter would include staffing for both counseling and student activity programs. If it is necessary to have small institutions to accomplish the objectives, then large institutions cannot be defended.

Much is said regarding the impersonal attitude of the professor, about his research and consulting commitments, about the principle of "publish or perish," about the burden of large classes leaving little of the professor for the student. Community colleges are teaching institutions and with reasonable precautions and adequate expenditures there should be ample opportunity for the conscientious, cooperative teacher-pupil relationship to flourish in a large institution. While it is true that the large institution provides more opportunity for the "slacker" to "get lost," the tenure laws of the state also makes it possible for mediocrity to exist in institutions of all sizes.

Original faculties of rapidly expanding colleges often comment on how wonderful it was when they knew all their peers. One wonders if there is more wealth in knowing 100 per cent of a faculty of twenty-five than a selected 50 per cent of a faculty of one hundred. I strongly suspect that the majority of a faculty would prefer to divorce its social and professional life.

It has been of real comfort to realize that as our college has grown in size it has been possible to employ and to assign instructors in their major academic fields. Not only is teaching strengthened in this way but there is also a real advantage in recruitment when a teacher knows he can teach in his major field.

Size and the Curriculum

Educators who are committed to junior college education must be concerned with the size of institutions. Recently, at a president's committee meeting, attended by about twenty, including deans, vice-presidents, and president, the major agenda item was multicampus junior college districts. A report was made on Arthur M. Jensen's recent dissertation on this subject and also his article entitled "Urban Community Colleges Go Multicampus" which appeared in the November, 1965, issue of the *Junior College Journal.*

Serious discussion followed regarding the desirability of a second campus for the El Camino Junior College District. Much to my surprise the group was of the opinion that the arguments, at least at our institution, favored a single campus. A particularly strong position in this regard was made by a dean who does considerable consulting work for many junior colleges both in California and throughout the United States. He cited numerous courses, mainly transfer, that could not be sustained in a college of lesser enrollment. It was his position that, to a large degree, our excellence resulted from the opportunity to present a strong and broad curriculum.

A community college fulfilling its philosophy and goals must provide a strong program with adequate guidance—curriculums with opportunity for transfer, terminal, and general education. A comprehensive program in technical education is costly because of equipment and because of limited class size. In observing the operation of smaller institutions it is obvious that there is a real problem in providing a sound program. Either there is a narrow range of majors or there are large blocks of time when costly facilities and equipment are not used—or both. Even in an institution of considerable size the development of a broad technical program with the hope of high utilization is not to be undertaken lightly.

Oxford College in England, the Claremont Colleges in California, University of the Pacific, and, more recently, the University of California—Santa Cruz, and others have organized on the principle of developing colleges within colleges. The idea is to maintain the identity and virtue of smallness, yet to obtain the advantage of joint use of libraries, laboratories, stadium, and other costly facilities.

El Camino College is organized and developed on the principle of decentralization—divisions within a college. Deans give leadership to divisions with twenty to fifty faculty members. Their responsibility is backed with authority. The dean is a major force in the development of curriculums, selection and retention of faculty, budget development, in-service education for his faculty, and for the standard of performance of his division. To the degree that the dean can humanize education and those who teach the student, a large institution will excel. We believe this organizational pattern provides the opportunity for realizing many of the virtues of both the small and the large institution.

So You Go Multicampus

One of the interesting and educational aspects of my career was to have been a counselor at Pasadena City College. Later, I was assistant superintendent for the Pasadena City Schools which supported Pasadena City College, an old and well established institution, as well as Muir College, a neophyte struggling institution.

From my past experience I think it reasonable to say that if a district is going to add a second institution to a well established college it should be willing to think big. Assuming the first college is first rate, the second must be developed fast and also be designed to be a superior institution. This calls for faster development on a more inflationary market than the first. To do less will peg the second as a step child and bring all the problems inherent in zoning, unless the two are at considerable geographic distance, to insure proper utilization.

Decisions, unfortunately, must be made on the basis of the facts and circumstances at the time they are made, without the wisdom of hindsight. In addition to this, it is particularly difficult in a metropolitan area for a board of trustees to call its shots on size, due to the many conflicting interests and needs within the area and the limitations of space. A consoling fact is that of first order in importance is studying, planning, developing, and implementing a program which will provide maximum educational opportunities for excellence, in a situation that values individual differences and worth. This goal is attainable in institutions both large and small.

PROBLEMS OF THE URBAN JUNIOR COLLEGE

By Walter T. Coultas

Experience in Los Angeles Indicates Some Solutions Are Now Visible

Walter T. Coultas is assistant superintendent of the Los Angeles City School Districts which have seven community junior colleges with enrollments totaling 69,000.

The junior college located in the large urban complex faces peculiar social, economic, and educational problems not ordinarily encountered by the suburban junior college. Essentially these are problems that grow out of size and complexity. The solutions to these problems are found in the development of understanding and a cooperative effort through participation and a mutuality of purpose.

The Los Angeles Junior College District may be considered to be typical of the central urban complex. At present the 69,000 junior college students of Los Angeles (29,000 day and 40,000 evening) are served in seven colleges. Each of the seven is a complete entity in itself, administered by its president and his staff of sub-administrators.

Sites have been purchased for three additional colleges planned to open in 1966, 1968, and 1973. The assessed valuation of $200,000 behind each full-time student places the Los Angeles Junior College District in the middle wealth category of the state. The district serves an estimated population of 3.6

million with an ethnic composition of approximately 83 per cent white and 17 per cent nonwhite.

With all public junior colleges in California, those of Los Angeles anticipate a great surge of students between now and 1970. Projections indicate an estimated increase from the present 29,000 day student enrollment to 50,000 by 1970. This population growth will necessitate the expenditure of $46 million for new construction.

The Los Angeles Junior College District and the Los Angeles Unified District are separate entities although they are governed by a common board of education and administered by one superintendent. This pattern of organization has one disadvantage along with its many advantages. The very size of the operation and the magnitude of the responsibilities placed on the shoulders of seven dedicated board members make it difficult for them to consider the unique needs of the junior colleges without having their considerations influenced by policies made for the operation of the high school and the elementary districts.

Our colleges operate under a policy of maximum autonomy for the individual college and its president. Each institution is charged with the responsibility of meeting the needs of its own student population and the geographical area in which it is located. Overall coordination and uniformity of practice, where district uniformity is necessary, is accomplished through bimonthly meetings of the presidents' council, the curriculum coordinating council, the admissions officers, deans of students, deans of educational services, and deans of the evening division. These administrators meet with specified personnel from the central operations office.

Self-Segregation

With this background, I should like to present several problems that seem to be unique to the central urban complex. As is true in most urban communities, minority groups have a tendency to concentrate in certain areas of the district. Whether by choice or housing practices is not to be argued here, but it is a fact of urban life. One would suppose that the student composition of a particular college would be a reflection of the residential neighborhood in which it is located. This has not proved true in Los Angeles.

We are experiencing integration in reverse. A junior college student in Los Angeles may attend any one of the district colleges he desires. Consequently a student may choose his college by appeal rather than the educational advantages to be derived. Certain ethnic groups have carried this to an extreme with the result that self-segregation is taking place. Two of the reasons for this self-segregation appear to be the implied status attached by a minority community to a particular college and a demonstrated desire on the part of members of various minority groups to want to be together.

We are convinced that the intellectual climate of the truly collegiate institution is best fostered by an integrated student body. We also agree that every effort must be made to insure this integration.

Several proposals have been mentioned: (1) forcing attendance by setting arbitrary boundary lines, (2) expanding the capacities of existing colleges while curtailing the building of additional colleges, and (3) reserving and allotting certain curriculums to specific colleges. The latter alternative has been selected as the most logical.

Los Angeles City College, located in the center of Los Angeles, offers many such programs. The five comprehensive colleges offer Spanish, German, French, and Russian, but City College in addition has instructional programs in Arabic, Chinese, Hebrew, Italian, Latin, Portuguese, and Slavic. Other typical curriculums offered only at City College include medical technology, linguistic receptionist, X-ray technician, dental assistant, translator and interpreter, ophthalmic optics, paint technology, television technology, transportation, food store management, and digital computer repair and maintenance.

Increase in Low Achievers

A concurrent situation that seems to run hand in hand with the self-segregation problem is an increase in the number of new enrollees with low level educational achievement selecting the minority "status college." (California law requires the junior college to accept any student who possesses a high school diploma or is over 18 and can profit from the instruction.) One such institution in Los Angeles recently enrolled 700 students who fell below the tenth percentile on the entrance examination. Experience has shown that these students will probably not be with us over one semester or two at the most. This same institution has had an increase in the number of top level students enrolling. The resultant range of abilities and achievement presents a real dilemma for the faculty.

Special programs are being designed to give these less capable students a greater opportunity to succeed in the regular associate in arts program, whether it be occupational or college transfer, and also to make it possible for these same students to realize the maximum from their abilities. It is the responsibility of our junior colleges to make every effort to educate all students who walk through our doors—not just the academically talented. Care must be exercised to avoid the trap that one president speaks of when he says, "We force too many of our students into programs that predestine them to failure; they run into a brick wall and all they have to show for the encounter is a lump on the head. We, the educators, claim the lump is a worthwhile experience." In accepting the responsibility for all students, care has been exercised to make sure that standards of our degree-level classes are not lowered with the subsequent shortchanging of the academically able.

The president of the college with the large number of students with low entrance examination scores is planning the establishment of an extension division patterned after the extension division of the university. Courses would not carry credit toward an associate in arts degree, but would strengthen the background of the less academically able and thus give them a better opportunity to experience success in the regular college program. It is expected that many students will decide, after exposure to the extension program, that "college is not for them" and will discontinue their attendance. These students will have been given skills and information that will be helpful as they find their place in the world of work.

Creating a Community Image

Another problem facing the junior college in the central urban complex is the difficulty in creating a community image. The *suburban* college becomes the possession of the community in which it is located. Local pride and identification with activities and programs, personal relationship with faculty, administrators, and students all contribute to the phrase, "This is our college."

The *urban* college or "streetcar college" is something else again. The mobility of the population, the in-migration of new residents, the ready availability of every type of activity associated with the usual suburban college program, diverts interest and loyalty from the urban college especially if that college is one of many in a large city. Within commuting distance of the Los Angeles Junior College District composed of its seven colleges, we have four state colleges, a major university, and five private colleges, with each vying for its place in the sun.

Athletic teams provide a great binding force in the surburban college. In the large city complex professional sports and university programs overshadow anything that the junior college might offer. It is rare for the city junior college event to draw more than a limited number of spectators even from its own student body population.

Lack of identification spreads to the student body itself. It is difficult to develop a student activity program that involves more than a relatively small percentage of the total enrollment. Many activities that are taken for granted in suburban junior colleges must be promoted and actually "sold" to the students in the urban college.

What are we doing to alleviate or minimize this problem? The junior colleges of Los Angeles carry on the accepted community relations program found in most of the colleges of California. This includes extensive use of lay advisory committees (Trade-Technical College has ninety-seven active committees composed of 500 leaders of business and industry), organized public relations programs, city-wide publicized events such as the "Junior College Man and Woman of the Year" contest, active supportive groups as exemplified by the Los Angeles City College's "Friends of the College," parents' clubs, and numerous lecture and film series. But these activities must be considered as secondary. The primary effort and emphasis must lie in creating in the mind of the student a sense of identification with his college. This is not an easy task where a multitude of varied community events and activities pull at him from every direction.

To further the student's identification with his college, Los Angeles City College has instituted many varied and ingenious programs designed to give recognition to students in all fields of endeavor—educational, social, and cultural. Group projects that foster pride in accomplishment have been found to be extremely valuable. Every effort is made to appeal to the diversity of student interests. Musical and theatrical productions, speakers, and debates that challenge the imagination give recognition to the students' membership in the larger social groups. Recent examples include a debate between a Black Muslim and a member of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People—both students—and another debate between a student from Arabia and a student from Israel. Los Angeles Valley College has its "Quadwranglers." Student debates are held weekly in the quad on current and controversial issues of universal importance.

To make an urban college the cultural center of the community is well-nigh impossible, but the college can and must become the cultural center for the individual student.

Standardizing Procedures

It was mentioned earlier in this article that Los Angeles maintains a policy of maximum autonomy for its seven colleges. On the surface this is a very noble statement, but in practice it creates one of our most difficult administrative problems. In the multi-campus district of the big city more and more practices and procedures require increased standardization. It is not unusual for a student to attend two or three of our junior colleges before receiving his degree. This student mobility calls for a uniformity of course content and numbering, admission and retention standards, graduation requirements, scholastic standards, regulations for student conduct, registration deadlines, record keeping, and many other operational policies.

Clearly defined, firmly established personnel policies must be administered impartially on all campuses of the district. There are no secrets in a school system, whether it be large or small, and a practice initiated by one college is bound to influence the practices of another.

The protection of academic freedom is a concern of all. Faculty and students would prefer to have a precise operational policy. That freedom exists in the classroom is an established fact, but the license to invite unrestricted off-campus speakers causes continual concern. The sociological milieu of one college may be very different from another. A speaker whose ideas are completely acceptable on one campus might incite a minor riot on another campus a few miles away.

Construction of new plant facilities on one campus sets a precedent for identical construction on other campuses. New equipment installed on one campus immediately becomes standard equipment for all other colleges.

Competition for new faculty members is very pronounced among the college presidents. Teacher recruitment and examination of prospective teachers is a responsibility of the personnel division. Instructor eligibility lists are established for each subject. The college presidents must fill a vacant position by selecting a candidate from the top-ranking five on a specific eligibility list. Without clearly defined operational procedures the selection from these lists could become chaotic.

Review of these phases of administrative control which could readily move the multi-campus district toward uncompromising standardization and conformity raises the question of measures which can be taken to prevent the threat of ultimate bureaucratic authoritarianism.

The method found to be the most practical in Los Angeles springs from a dedication to the committee structure of administration. Naturally there are times when one person must say yes or no but these authoritarian decisions can be much less painful when the communication lines are completely free between the one who makes the decision and those whom the decision affects.

Regularly scheduled meetings of the presidents, the deans in their special fields, and the interaction of individuals from various areas can consider practically any problem that faces the junior college. The seven college faculty presidents meet regularly with the assistant superintendent to discuss common concerns. The establishment of a district-wide faculty council is being planned to formalize this relationship. Department chairmen of the various disciplines are called together to discuss subject matter content and equipment needs. All plans for new construction facilities originate with building committees made up of faculty members selected from the various colleges. These plans are submitted to the master building committee chaired by the assistant superintendent. Final approval must be sought from the associate superintendent, superintendent, and the board of education. However, with the care and knowledge that go into the planning of all facets of the junior college program, little difficulty is experienced in gaining final approval.

The most valuable outgrowth of this method of administration has been broad understanding throughout the district and a sense of working together toward common goals.

Personal Interest in the Individual

One of the outstanding features of the junior college is its dedication to the individual. Personal interest in the student is the keynote to its instructional program. The urban junior college is usually a large institution. Los Angeles City College enrolls approximately 8,000 day students and 10,000 evening students. The mere size and complexity of the operation in such an institution leads toward mechanization and its subsequent submerging of the individual.

Los Angeles colleges endeavor continually to create situations where the individual student becomes a personality rather than a number or a body. In the recruitment of teachers, the student oriented instructor is in much more demand than the subject matter oriented. Every student is exposed to some type of orientation. The counselor holds the key position not only in his help to the student but in the active part he takes in instructional planning. In our large college each department must, in effect, become a small college within the larger organization.

There are many other problems that are accentuated in the urban junior college: financing, articulation with other levels of education, organization, vocational training, etc.; but neither time nor space permits inclusion in this discussion. Suffice it to say that the junior college is the ideal institution to meet the changing needs brought about by the complexities of higher education in the metropolitan areas of our nation. The diversity of its program, the flexibility of its operating procedures, the lack of tradition-bound shackles, and the dedication of its faculty, lead to the conclusion that no problem is insurmountable when it is attacked with understanding, cooperative effort, and a mutuality of purpose.

By Dorothy M. Knoell

FOCUS ON THE TRANSFER PROGRAM

Report on a National Study of Nearly 8,500 Students from More Than 300 Two-Year Colleges

A major junior college transfer study has recently been completed at the Center for the Study of Higher Education, University of California, Berkeley.

The study involved nearly 8,500 students from more than 300 two-year colleges in forty-three states, who transferred in 1960 to some forty-one four-year colleges and universities located in a group of ten states.* About 3,500 native students in these same four-year institutions were also involved in the study for purposes of comparison.

The research was undertaken at the request of the Joint Committee on Junior and Senior Colleges of the American Association of Junior Colleges, the Association of American Colleges, and American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admission Officers.

The joint committee has been working since 1957 on problems of improving articulation between the two types of colleges. In mid-1958 the committee undertook a modest questionnaire survey to find out what kinds of policies governing transfer between colleges were then in effect. A tentative statement of guidelines for transfer was formulated, based on the questionnaire findings and the expert opinion of committee members and others. However, the committee recognized the need for further research on the transfer function, which was beyond its capability. At this point the Center for the Study of Higher Education was asked to undertake the research, with the continuing guidance of the committee.

As the study neared completion the committee was successful in securing a grant from the Esso Foundation to the American Association of Junior Colleges, which will make it possible to hold a series of state and regional conferences to disseminate the research findings and to have groups of college personnel test and refine the proposed guidelines they would later be expected to implement. A final statement of guidelines should be ready by late 1965, in time for submission to the three associations for approval at their 1966 meetings.

The research might be viewed as an intensive study of the transfer function in ten states with long histories of public junior colleges prior to 1960. The states are California, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Kansas, Michigan, New York, Pennsylvania, Texas, and Washington. Participation was secured in each state by most of the four-year institutions to which sizable numbers of junior college students transferred at that time. The forty-one institutions included the ten major state universities, e.g., the University of Michigan; ten other state universities, e.g., Kansas State University; ten teachers' colleges, e.g., Western Washington State College; eight private universities, e.g., Roosevelt University; and three technical institutions, e.g., Rochester Institute of Technology.

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* The study was financed by two grants from the U.S. Office of Education between 1961 and 1964. Technical research reports were published by the Center in 1964 under the titles, *Factors Affecting Performance of Transfer Students From Two- to Four-Year Colleges: With Implications for Coordination and Articulation* (Cooperative Research Project No. 1133) and *Articulation Between Two-Year and Four-Year Colleges* (Cooperative Research Project No. 2167). Leland L. Medsker served as principal investigator for the two projects and as second author of the research reports. A digest of the findings will be published by the American Council on Education.

The three major foci of the study are junior college transfer students and their native student counterparts, the colleges and universities in which they pursued their degree programs, and the ten states in which the four-year institutions are located.

Effective beginning date of the study was the fall of 1960 when the transfer students entered the four-year institutions, for the most part at the junior level. Their academic careers were followed for three years, through the beginning of their fourth year after transfer. The analysis was extended back to include their junior college performance records and, in some cases, their high school records.

The native students who participated in the study were selected from rosters of 1962 graduates. They were compared with transfer students who graduated at the same time. An attempt was made to match the comparison groups on the basis of sex and major, while allowing the date of their first registration in colleges and other variables to vary. The two major sources of data were the students' college transcripts and biographical questionnaires which they completed during the spring semester after transfer. These data were supplemented by extensive information obtained in interviews with both students and staff on the four-year college campuses, by participation in various articulation conferences, and from a collection of state and institutional studies and informational materials.

The major objectives of the study were to find out how successful the junior college students were in achieving their degree goals; how they compared with native students with respect to ability, grades, and time needed to earn their degrees; what effect institutional factors had on the success of the students; and what kinds of transfer policies, practices, programs, and machinery for articulation and coordination were operating during the period of the study.

Major Findings

Achievement of Degree Goals: It has been estimated that about 75 per cent of the junior college students would achieve their baccalaureate degree goals by the end of their fourth year after transfer, most of them in the institutions to which they transferred in 1960. Fewer than half the students graduated on time, i.e., after two-plus-two or one-plus-three programs. Among the students who transferred as juniors, 45 per cent graduated two years after transfer, 68 per cent within three years, and an estimated 75 per cent or more by the end of the fourth year. Only 35 per cent of those who transferred with sophomore standing graduated on time and only 20 per cent were still enrolled in the same institution at the end of the study. The prognosis of eventual graduation for the students who had only one year in junior college is thus much less good than for the junior college products, i.e., those who completed two-year programs.

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Attrition After Transfer: Almost 30 per cent of the transfer students dropped out at least once before the end of the study and some entered other colleges and universities. Only one-third of the dropouts (or 10 per cent of the total transfer group) were dismissed for poor scholarship. However, two-thirds had grade-point averages below C at the time they dropped out. Dropouts who entered other colleges experienced a considerable degree of success, including some who had been dismissed earlier.

Some type of financial problem was a factor in the decisions of about 40 per cent of the transfer students who withdrew of their own choice. Some had transferred without adequate financial resources or a realistic estimate of costs; others had unanticipated expenses in connection with family illness or pregnancy of working wives. Still others found business opportunities more attractive than their degree programs. About one-third of the voluntary withdrawals and two-thirds of the students who were dismissed felt that some type of motivational problem was a major factor in their dropping out, often disappointment in the four-year institution, in their instructors, and in their field of specialization.

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Differences Among Colleges: Variation among colleges, among types of colleges, and among the ten states in the study was so great that a brief summary of findings about transfer student performance does not suffice. No sound prediction of chances for success can be made for the very large percentage of transfer students whose junior college grades were between C and C+ without knowing the type of college to which they expected to transfer, the state in which they attended college, and, to a lesser extent, their intended major. Some of the factors in the four-year colleges which appeared to affect the probable outcomes for the transfer students were the quality of the native students with whom they competed for grades, the size and complexity of the institution, the kinds of programs offered, and the institution's philosophy concerning undergraduate instruction. Differences among the states appeared in the diversity of opportunity offered in the two- and four-year colleges and the effectiveness of the colleges in working together cooperatively to facilitate transfer.

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Grade-Point Differentials: Most junior college students experienced some drop in grades when they transferred to the four-year institutions. The differential for the entire group between the cumulative junior college average and the average for the first semester after transfer was only -0.3 but the differential for the five types of colleges ranged from 0.0 for the teachers' colleges to -0.5 for the major state universities. While the differentials were small they were serious for the students whose junior college grades were only 2.5 or lower, who constituted fully half the transfer group.

There was a very large differential of a full grade-point between the average of the students who graduated on time and that of the students who dropped out after transfer. The upper division average of the students who were dismissed was about D+ while that of the voluntary withdrawals hovered around C. The four-semester average of the graduates was 2.7, which represented an increase of from 2.57 for the first semester after transfer to 2.84 for the fourth. The performance of the dropouts was thus clearly inferior to that of the students who achieved their degree goals.

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Comparisons with Native Students: The students who entered the universities as freshmen and persisted to graduation had more academic aptitude and a greater readiness to undertake college work as freshmen than those who entered junior colleges. Although the lower division grades of the native students were lower than those of the junior college students, their upper division grades were significantly higher than those earned by the transfer students when the two groups were in direct competition.

The grades of the native students improved steadily as they moved through their four-year programs; their best performance occurring in the upper division when they began to concentrate on their majors.

The grades of the transfer students dropped when they entered the four-year institutions and then improved to about the level of their junior college grades.

This pattern of performance for the two groups was more likely to be found in the major universities than in the teachers' colleges where the native students did not differ from the transfers with respect to either ability or performance.

* * *

Transfer Student Characteristics: The transfer students were quite homogeneous with respect to their personal and family characteristics and appeared in many ways to resemble the typical undergraduate in a state university with open door admissions. The "typical" transfer student was male, white, Protestant, 19 or 20 years old when he transferred, and with American-born parents. However, his parents tended to have had less formal education than the parents of university students. Family income was thus lower since their fathers held jobs in the semiskilled and skilled groups of occupations. The so-called typical transfer student had taken a general or college preparatory program in high school and graduated in the top half of his class.

One might be more likely to regard the junior college transfer student as having an economic handicap than an academic one, except insofar as parental support for and understanding of his plans for college might be lacking because of their own lack of formal education. The economic plight of the transfer students appeared at many points in the study—in their initial decision to attend a junior college, in their employment while in college, in their financial problems after transfer, and in their attrition.

* * *

Instructional and Personnel Services: The transfer students gave very high ratings to their junior colleges—to the quality of their instructors, to the range of courses offered, to the interest taken in the students, and to the quality of their classmates.

Somewhat less favorable ratings were given to counseling and academic advising, although the ratings given to the junior college services were better than those given to comparable services in the four-year colleges. Criticism of counseling was not that it was poor but that there was too little of it in either type of college.

Orientation programs offered by the four-year colleges were usually either ignored or viewed as failures by the transfer students, at least as presently organized.

In interviews the students had many constructive suggestions to make to two- and four-year colleges concerning instruction, orientation, advising, and

"It will not be enough merely to offer opportunity in these new institutions. Better means must be found to assist students to take maximum advantage of this increased opportunity."

other aspects of the program which they had seldom had an opportunity to pass on to their colleges.

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Transfer Policies and Practices: Junior college students had a fairly wide range of four-year institutions to which they could transfer in 1960 if they earned a C average on their junior college courses. Most four-year institutions permitted junior college students with a C average to transfer at any time, regardless of their high school record. By 1964, some change in this open door approach to the admission of transfer students had begun to occur, as the four-year colleges became selective at the freshmen level for the first time. The trend was toward encouraging or requiring students to remain in junior college to complete the major portion of their lower division work. A few colleges were requiring a junior college average above C for transfer, particularly when it occurred below the junior level.

The four-year colleges were also fairly liberal in accepting junior college courses for transfer credit. The amount of credit was usually restricted to about half the baccalaureate degree program although some institutions instituted a post-transfer residence requirement in lieu of a restriction on the amount of credit which could be transferred. Some colleges refused to accept transfer courses in which D grades had been earned and there was talk of adopting such a regulation in others. However, as the study ended the policies governing the acceptance of credit could be characterized as generous in terms of both the amount accepted and the condition for doing so.

Such was not the case with respect to junior college grades, however. Almost none of the institutions in the study credited the transfer students with the grades they earned in junior college, either in making decisions about their retention when they incurred poor grades after transfer or in evaluating them for graduation. It seems reasonable to require transfer students to do satisfactory work at the institution granting the degree but disregard of information about the work done by the students in junior college seems an ill-advised loss.

Related to this is the complete lack of uniformity of practice in the matter of what junior college information is recorded on the transcripts of the institutions granting the baccalaureate degree. Review of practice turned up little evidence of deliberate discrimination against the junior college students in their admission, acceptance of credit, or evaluation for graduation, compared with native students and other transfers. However, improvements in articulation could, in all likelihood, be made which would result in an increase in the junior college students' chances for success after transfer.

* * *

Articulation and Coordination: At the time the study began the two- and four-year colleges in most states were just beginning to work together cooperatively at the state level. Most of the major state universities had extensive articulation programs with the junior colleges as well as with the high schools. But, relatively few of the other types of colleges either had their own college level articulation programs or participated cooperatively in the university programs. The exceptions were California and Florida, both of which had multicollege, statewide programs in 1961 which involved the secondary schools and state educational agencies as well as the two- and four-year colleges.

Activity has been increasing markedly since then. Staff is being added for college relations, more students are transferring to different types of colleges, and new colleges and curriculums are being established.

Formal coordination was also rather new in 1960, with agencies to coordinate various systems of higher education (or groups of institutions) having been established only in California and Illinois. However, in 1965 as the study ended a number of state legislatures had proposals before them which called for rather extensive coordination machinery, including changes in the administration and control of the junior colleges.

What Can Be Concluded

About Performance? The junior colleges have done a good job in extending opportunity in higher education to large numbers of high school graduates who would not otherwise be able to undertake baccalaureate degree programs largely because of economic and academic handicaps. Countless teachers, engineers, businessmen, government workers, and other highly trained personnel are being added to the ranks of our educated citizenry because of the junior colleges.

At present every junior college transfer student with at least a C average on two years' work could probably achieve his degree goal in at least one public four-year institution in each state. However, many students are now transferring to institutions whose standards they cannot meet. An average of C in junior college is no guarantee of satisfactory achievement in all four-year colleges and universities, or in all programs. Higher standards for transfer to some institutions seem necessary although grade-point differentials are inevitable (and perhaps even desirable) if maximum freedom to transfer is to be preserved. Transfer students often have less academic aptitude than native students in the same institutions but they should not be denied admission if they can earn satisfactory (if lower) grades.

* * *

About Institutional Factors? There is a great deal of diversity in higher education at the upper division level—in the quality of the native students, the types of programs offered, the level of instruction, the climate for learning, and other factors which affect the performance of the transfer students. No single conclusion can be drawn about transfer student performance because of the vast differences which were found among the institutions which participated. A transfer student's probability of success depends upon his particular choice of four-year college and program as much as on the quality of his performance in high school and junior college.

Attrition after transfer is now higher than it should be and could probably be reduced through the joint efforts of the two- and four-year colleges. The same factors which direct high school graduates to junior colleges—unsatisfactory preparation in high school, inadequate financial resources, and lack of motivation for college, or well-defined interests—are producing a high incidence of attrition after transfer.

State and institutional financial aid programs are not organized with the best interests and needs of the junior college transfer student in mind. The transfer student often makes only satisfactory grades and has only limited funds and should not seek employment after transfer if he is to maintain a C average.

Junior college students need not take longer to complete their degree programs than students who do all their work in one institution if both types of colleges enter into articulation activity with appropriate attitudes.

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About Articulation and Coordination? Present machinery for articulation is inadequate in most states to solve the kinds of problems which will arise in the next decade—vastly increased numbers of transfer students, larger numbers of choices of college and programs open to transfer students, and mounting pressure to increase formal coordination and thus control over institutions and the mobility of students. Interdependence among two- and four-year colleges will increase as larger proportions of high school graduates take their lower division work in two-year colleges.

However, the general public still does not fully appreciate the role of the junior college in higher education in preparing students for transfer. Creators of state master plans for higher education are tending to neglect the provision of opportunity at the upper division level while expanding junior colleges and graduate and research programs. States appear to differ in the degree of success enjoyed by the junior college transfer students in relation to the kinds of opportunity provided in their public colleges and universities, and to the effectiveness of their articulation efforts in assisting students to transfer with a minimum of hardship.

What Are the Implications?

The goal of equality of opportunity in higher education can most certainly be approached by present efforts to expand and strengthen the public community college. However, it will not be enough merely to offer opportunity in these new institutions. Better means must be found to assist students to take maximum advantage of this increased opportunity. This can be done by improving counseling services at all levels; broadening financial aid programs; improving communication among the various types of colleges, between the colleges and the students and their parents, and with the general public; building an even better bridge with the high school and the university; and creating additional transfer opportunities in the four-year colleges. Above all there is need to develop better voluntary means for solving articulation problems involving both high schools and the various colleges, to complement the formal coordination machinery which is now being created in many states.

A large proportion of the new junior college students are first generation college-goers who are quite unsophisticated in the ways of higher education. Many four-year colleges are contemplating hordes of transfer students for the first time after a long history of thinking only in terms of new freshmen from high schools.

The guidelines which are to be proposed by the joint committee for transfer between colleges should go far to establish a framework within which institutions can work together to achieve the smooth transition of students through their two-plus-two programs toward the baccalaureate degree.

GAPS AND OVERLAPS IN INSTITUTIONAL RESEARCH

The Clearinghouse for Junior College Information at U.C.L.A. Hopes To Encourage Research Through Its Bibliographic Services

By John E. Roueche

Literature in the field of the community college is growing at a rate comparable with that of institutional growth. Many books on the junior college have been written in the past forty years. Several educational journals are focused on this area of education. Research on problems relevant to junior colleges is conducted by universities, state departments of education, various educational associations, private corporations, and by the institutions themselves.

Institutional research *in* the community college, however, is a recent phenomenon. The community college itself may be characterized as a product of the twentieth century. Except for a few isolated cases, organized research in the community college was unknown prior to the second half of this century.[1]

Recognizing this paucity of research, junior college leaders are becoming increasingly aware of the value of research in all institutions and they have begun to understand the need to compile and disseminate research findings. But a major problem results: compilations of findings are relatively unknown. To fill the gap, the ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information has focused its emphasis on obtaining and making available these so-called "fugitive" institutional research studies. ("Fugitive" indicates that the study has not been published and/or widely disseminated.) Currently these institutional research studies are the most fruitful, untapped source of information on the community college.

At this point, a definition of terms is appropriate. For our purposes, institutional research will be regarded as a designation for self-studies conducted by junior colleges.[2] These studies may be concerned with issues which have current application or they may be basic to long-term institutional planning.[3]

Any local investigation directed toward providing data in administration, planning, evaluation, or policy formulation is considered institutional research.[4] The most important factor is that it be an analysis conducted by a junior college of one or more aspects of its current or future academic or fiscal operations.[5] In brief, all studies done within the college, involving any phase of the institution, its program or operations, are included in the term, institutional research.[6]

Gaps and Overlaps

Since it began operation in the summer of 1966, the Clearinghouse for Junior College Information has processed approximately one thousand documents, the majority of which are institutional research studies produced by junior college research offices or designated staff members.

Although some valuable research is being done, certain gaps in types of research, problems studied, and focus have appeared. Following are four major categories in which many studies have been conducted resulting in some gaps and overlaps:

Junior college students: The typical junior college research study on this topic is a follow-up report on the junior college transfer student. For the most part, these follow-up studies focus on success of the junior college transfer student, with success being measured by grades earned at four-year colleges and universities. These studies inevitably seem to lead to the conclusion that:

1. Students who enter junior colleges and eventually transfer to senior institutions typically experience a lower grade-point average during the first semester following transfer.
2. In most cases, the transfer student's grades recover from the loss which occurs during the first semester.
3. Grade-point averages of transfers improve with each successive semester in which they are enrolled at the senior institution.
4. The transfer student who does graduate may take longer to reach the baccalaureate than does a comparable native student.

These research findings tend to corroborate conclusions of Knoell and Medsker,[7] and reinforce research data going as far back as 1928.[8]

Although a few of these institutional research studies add bibliographical data on students, most include only grade compilations and comparisons tabulated by subject area and name of transfer institution. They are limited in scope since they do not provide an insight into reasons for the transfer student's success or failure; nor do they attempt to draw inferences, conclusions, or recommendations for modifying junior college offerings in light of their findings. At present there is a crucial need to expand the scope of research to include attacks on problems associated with junior college transfer students.

One aspect of the dilemma is inherent in the way in which junior colleges view themselves and their functions. Junior colleges claim to be multipurpose, comprehensive institutions, yet the typical research study focuses on only one segment of the institution's students—those who transfer to four-year institutions.

Evaluating the accomplishments of students who leave the junior college prior to earning a degree or prior to completing a program of instruction is one of the most pressing problems we face. In a recent investigation of problems in California junior colleges, the "dropout" problem was identified as the third most important area of twenty-six such problems needing further study and research. The need was summarized as follows:

1. What do students gain from attending junior colleges for one semester or one year?
2. Do students gain anything from enrolling in junior college and withdrawing prior to completing one semester?
3. What happens to students who are dismissed because of poor scholarship?
4. Is student dropout a serious problem?
5. Why do students withdraw from college?
6. How may the dropout rate be reduced?
7. What values do students possess that cause them to make early or late, wise or unwise, effective or ineffective career decisions?[9]

There is need for junior colleges to initiate research on dropouts to answer the questions posed above. The overwhelming majority of junior college students have not been the subjects of junior college institutional research.

Curriculum development and evaluation: Institutional research studies of junior college curriculums have focused attention on the following topics: (a) institutional and departmental curricular programs developed within the framework of specific educational objectives; (b) status studies of curricular programs at other institutions; (c) specific programs for low-ability students; and (d) feasibility studies to determine the need for new, occupationally oriented curricular programs.

A few experimental community colleges have produced studies which developed a rationale for defining educational objectives as a first step in curriculum development. These studies are valuable because they represent an institutional effort to state learning objectives in terms of desired behavioral outcomes. The behaviorally specified learning objectives represent those competencies expected of any student who receives credit for a given course. Such a process provides the classroom teacher with a sound basis for designing and evaluating a program of study.

While most attention has been given to the development of programs for low-ability students, there has been little research in the evaluation of these programs. The problem is compounded by the fact that the typical junior college recognizes the need for remedial or developmental studies, yet few of them have engaged in systematic evaluation of these programs.

All evidence indicates that junior college leaders are aware of the need for systematic curriculum evaluation. The Peterson report lists as the number one problem facing California junior colleges:

"... measuring the effectiveness of instruction, including evaluation of (1) teaching methods, (2) new methodology, (3) textbooks, (4) library materials, (5) relation of class to educational gain, (6) special facilities, (7) in-service education, and (8) testing devices and the development of guidelines for good teaching."[10]

This presents another problem: though junior college leaders express interest in curriculum evaluation, the limited research they perform bears little evidence of an evaluation orientation. In brief, there is little indication that current research in the area of junior college curriculum results in program modification based on specific research findings and recommendations.

Experimental programs: Research studies of experimental programs vary widely in purpose, content, and findings. Investigations of experimental programs in the junior college usually fall into one of the following categories: status studies of experimental programs at other institutions; summary statements of rationale provided and procedures followed in the establishment of an experimental program; evaluation studies of comparative instructional approaches; and controlled experimental research projects.

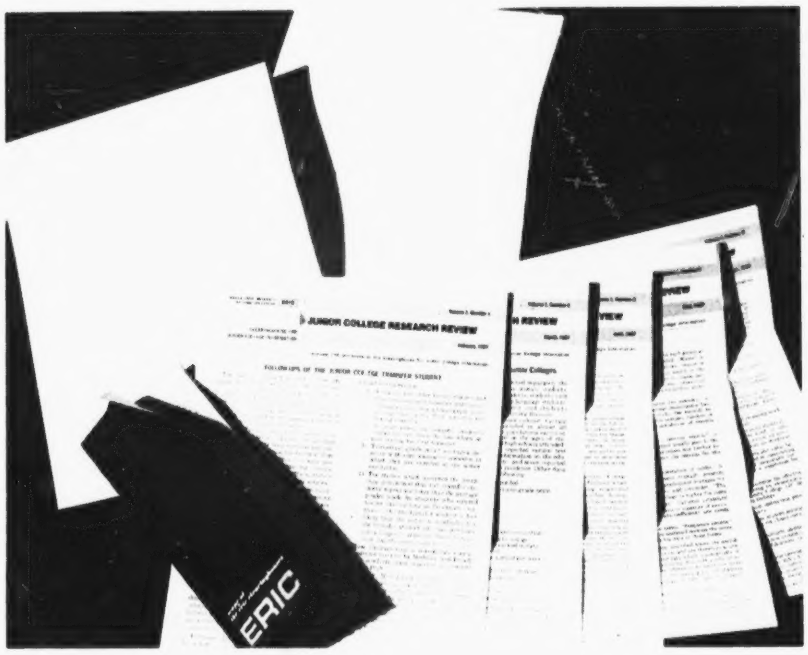
Three studies with broad implications for the field are, briefly:

1. Golden West College, Huntington Beach, California, developed an audio-tutorial approach in its liberal arts biology courses by following these methodological procedures: (a) defining each goal in measurable terms; (b) establishing a hierarchy of goals for greatest emphasis in the course; (c) determining the time to be given each unit, or goal; (d) recording tapes, writing and preparing workbooks and laboratory manuals; and (e) securing from the dean for institutional research an identification of the kinds of data which must be assembled to assure adequate evaluation of the program from its inception.[11] Because it represents an effort to build a program on the basis of specific learning objects, the Golden West report is of particular value. Perhaps more important, the study provides a suggestion for continuous evaluation.

2. The findings of an experimental project for low-ability students at Los Angeles City College resulted in a specific program alteration. Evidence gained from the experimental program demonstrated that while progress was made in raising the reading level of the students involved in the program, not enough progress could be made in a semester or a year to enable the student to move into regular classes with a reasonable chance of success. Since most low-ability students did not continue in the college for more than one academic year, it was decided to emphasize those things which would help the student to know himself and his potential, to help him accept realistic vocational goals, and to help him become a better citizen. Based on specific research findings, the focus of the program for low-ability students was shifted from remediation to general education.[12]

3. A research study to determine if large classes are conducive to effective learning in the writing skills was recently completed at Indian River Junior College, Fort Pierce, Florida. While there was some variation in student preferences, the results of the pre-test and post-test showed that, given the same quality of instructors, program, and students involved in the experiment, class size to fifty-six students is far from a significant variable in the learning of writing skills.[13]

These three serve as examples of well-designed studies in the area of experimental programs. In



general, however, few studies have been completed that relate to experimentation in the area of instructional improvement. In 1963, Johnson found that "few junior colleges have initiated plans of approval and may be designated as 'islands of innovation' in education." [14] The need for more research and experimentation in this area is patently clear.

Classroom testing: For the junior college student, the part of the course which is of vital concern is also the part about which very little research has been done—the uses, administration, and evaluation of the classroom test.[15] Considering its importance, there is need for more information on the proper function of the classroom test in the junior college. There are varied accounts of the use of standardized tests for screening and placement, but there is not yet sufficient research on the testing of course content as a measure of learning.

Perhaps one reason for the relatively small number of research studies on classroom testing is that both test and course material are faculty prerogatives and junior college faculty members do not typically report on their class procedures. Despite this, it cannot be denied that teachers should attempt to answer the basic questions:

1. For what purpose are tests given?
2. Are test questions primarily geared to recall of course content?
3. Do tests really assess achievement of course goals?
4. How might experts in test construction aid teachers in designing effective tests? [16]

Undoubtedly most teachers would agree that they want to retain the right to conduct their own testing. Many of them, though, would be interested in learning about the experience of other teachers in similar situations. These teachers would welcome sound innovations, separated from rumor and hunch —innovations suggested by their counterparts in other junior colleges and adaptable to similar courses elsewhere.

Some Perspectives

A recent investigation of institutional research in the junior colleges of the United States found that fewer than 20 per cent of the junior colleges have formally organized programs of institutional research and fewer than one-third of the colleges surveyed had plans for evaluating their research programs.[17] Effective institutional research programs are the result of a commitment to the need for research as a prerequisite to institutional planning. Institutional research in the junior college needs increased financial support and renewed emphasis on the endeavor. If programs are to be planned and systematically evaluated, if effects of the college on its community and on the lives of its students are to be assessed, junior college institutional research must be supported to a degree greater than its current level.

Through its efforts the Clearinghouse for Junior College Information is attempting to control the research literature in a bibliographic sense. It is also endeavoring to support junior college research by adding emphasis to the institutional reseach presently produced in community colleges.

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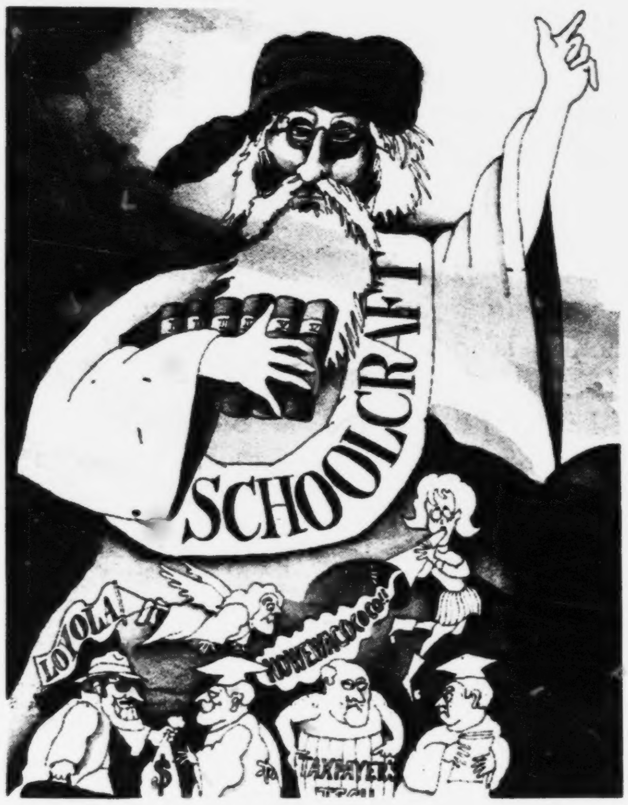

HOW TO NAME A COLLEGE, SORT OF

There Is a New College Every Week, And Some Existing Colleges May Have A Name Problem, Too

By Patrick Butler

If you have named any colleges lately you will know it is not a job to be taken lightly. The days are gone when the trustees can lounge around the big oak table puffing fifty-cent cigars and saying things like, "Massachusetts Institute of Technology has a good, solid ring to it," or, "How about William and Mary—that wouldn't hurt us at all in the right places."

By now most of the best names have been taken. At least most of the obvious ones have. After all, it didn't take much imagination to name the University of Iowa. If what you have is a university in Iowa and it is the first university in Iowa you could hardly call it Sarah Lawrence.

A new college is being born somewhere in the United States every week, and, except for the Catholics who can always fall back on Aquinas or Loyola—or, in some circles, perhaps Margaret Sanger—the choice of the college name is fraught with peril. A couple of years ago I sat in on a typical christening in my part of Wayne County, Michigan. It may be instructive to review the proceedings.

What is now Schoolcraft College began in the spring of 1962 when the people in the northeast corner of Wayne County—just west of Detroit—voted money from local taxes to build and support a community college. The newly elected board of trustees named the place Northwest Wayne County Community College, a name justified, they thought, because (1) the college was located in northwest Wayne County, and (2) it was a community college.

The naming was a straightforward and seemingly inconsequential decision, laughably simple. It soon became apparent, however, that while Northwest Wayne County Community College was geographically accurate and descriptively sound, it was also pretty much of a mouthful.

No. We. Wa. Co. Co. Co.

The girl at the switchboard found it difficult to repeat "Northwest Wayne County Community College" brightly at three minute intervals without losing her cool by coffee break time. And there were more serious problems, if you grant that there can *be* more serious problems than a babbling switchboard girl. The new college needed headlines in its infancy if it was to gain local acceptance. Unfortunately you cannot get Northwest Wayne County Community College in a headline and still have much room for a story. The only abbreviation devised, No. We. Wa. Co. Co. Co. flopped. It tended to remind readers, particularly when read aloud, of the sound track from an old Tarzan film.

The blow that doomed the name came from a sports-minded trustee. He announced that he had spent the better part of a week trying to work up a shoutable cheer built around "Northwest Wayne

County Community College" and that he was beginning to doubt that it could be done. It was clear that the name must go.

The board brooded. The ideal way to name a college—or rename one—is, of course, in honor of someone who has just scattered a few million dollars over the campus. Just who the donor is doesn't much matter. There is a period in the life of every institution of higher learning when Lucky Luciano, should he glide forward with a sizable legacy, would find his name enshrined forever in the pages of *Lovejoy's College Guide*.

With no benefactor in sight to buy their baby a name, the board did the statesmanlike thing: they passed the buck. What could be more in the democratic tradition, they asked, than to have the new college named by the people who were footing the bills? A "Name the College Contest" was announced to the residents of the district and 200,000 brains were put to work on the problem.

If a contest could be devised so that only one entry—the deserving winner—arrived in the morning mail, contests would enjoy greater merit in the eyes of their judges. Unfortunately neither snow, rain nor sleet, nor television kept several hundred people from entering the Name the College Contest, a fair percentage of them under the impression that they had been asked to name a laundromat or a drive-in movie.

"Taxpayers Tech"

I have lost the notes of the names submitted. (Actually they were torn to shreds during the closing minutes of a late judges meeting.) But, a few remain unexorcized from my mind and may be taken as typical. Romance was represented by the lady who urged Kismet (Kismet Kommunity Kollege?) on the trustees. Ingenuity combined with a tin ear was realized by "Plyvonia," an acronym of two cities in the area, Plymouth and Livonia. While Plyvonia is admittedly superior to its alternate coinage, Livmouth, it is scarcely one of the sweetest sounds this side of heaven—or this side of Harvey Mudd, for that matter.

My own favorite came rudely scrawled on a post card: Taxpayer's Tech. It never had a chance.

Eventually, the contest ended. The board mumbled something about not making any hasty decisions and went into executive session.

Immediately the college staff—a skeleton crew of administrators was on hand planning curriculums and buildings—began casting about frantically for a Michigan personage whose accomplishments were worth honoring and whose name was short. They came up with several, all tarnished. Two early educators were in the running until one was discovered to have been an atheist and the other a Catholic priest; both were eliminated on the grounds of extremism. One prominent leader of the nineteenth century, it turned out, had come into his money through liquor. Several, alas, seemed to have come into liquor through money.

Glorious History

Suddenly one day someone happened on Henry Rowe Schoolcraft (1793-1864) and his glorious history!

Now here was a Michigander of Renaissance proportions. Schoolcraft the explorer: at twenty-seven he tracked the Mississippi to its source on orders from President Monroe. Schoolcraft the ethnologist and scholar: his six-volume *Historical and Statistical Information Respecting the History, Condition, and Prospects of the Indian Tribes of the United States*, published in the 1850's by the Library of Congress is today a classic work. Schoolcraft the geologist was notable as was Schoolcraft the Indian agent in Michigan. Schoolcraft the hobnobber with literary lions: Longfellow learned the Hiawatha tale at Schoolcraft's knee. And Schoolcraft the integrationist: his first wife was part Chippewa. Here was a man of action and a man of learning and a man who never made a dime from liquor even with all those Indians around.

Consider a Change?

The board, overjoyed, met hurriedly.

Somebody moved that the name of Northwest Wayne County Community College be changed to Henry Rowe Schoolcraft Community College. There were smiles all around until one trustee balked.

"Hell's bells," he said, "that name is longer than the first one." Thirty-seven letters in *it*, only thirty-six in the one we got now."

He was not an unkind trustee but he had a mathematical mind. Having dropped his bomb he proposed a way out. Let's just call the place "Schoolcraft College," he said, and we'll be in business.

For over five years now there has been a Schoolcraft College in the northwest corner of Wayne County, Michigan. It bulges today with over 4,000 students among whom are half a dozen who know who Henry Rowe Schoolcraft was.

The other day the president of the board of trustees received a letter from a citizen of the community complaining that while Schoolcraft College appeared to be an excellent institution of reasonably higher learning the name bothered her. Sounded like a trade school, the lady said. Had the board, she inquired, ever considered changing the college's name?

I have no record of the president's reply.

The Essentials of Planning

WILSON F. WETZLER

THE THESIS is stated here that any idea or proposal for action is as sound as the amount of time and effort spent in planning. A college dean may be convinced of an idea and discuss it enthusiastically with his president. Or faculty members may explore a program and believe it is an answer to many of their problems. Unless there has been good planning they may be chagrined and disappointed in failing to get across the idea or to sell the plan.

College administrators and faculty members are usually under constant pressure to plan either for the immediate future or for periods ahead. Their special training and experience have prepared them to organize their thoughts in an orderly, consistent fashion. However, it is not always evident that their excellent training has carried over when it comes to planning or laying out a plan of action to reach certain stated objectives. Whether an academic dean is looking ahead to chart a particular curriculum program, a business manager conceiving a long range budget, or a faculty committee exploring a general education program, some basic essentials or guidelines for laying a logical plan are required to insure success.

For some years now a few of the large corporations and certain government agencies have been experimenting in the making of long-range plans that are rather involved in the use of mathematical formulae and electronic computers. Yet the ingredients of sound planning are still present even in these highly sophisticated techniques and the essentials of planning are offered now for the junior college administrators and faculty members.[1]

The major purpose of this discussion is to suggest a seven point checklist that can serve as a framework in planning any course of action from the administrative or faculty level. Each point will be discussed briefly.

The first step is that of gathering *pertinent facts.* The listing of facts about the problem, project, proposal, or whatever is involved should be done carefully and systematically. These are the facts that influence the institution, the students, or the faculty, and so on. For example, if the issue involves the admission of students, many facts about the student characteristics such as age, aptitudes, test scores, etc. are required. It should be pointed out that many plans could die aborning or be altered if sufficient facts were collected since new directions or insights may be provided in light of the facts.

The second step in planning is to consider the *purpose and objectives.* Under this heading are presented the real, hard core reasons why planning along certain lines is important in the minds of those who are presenting a plan of action. Certainly the business manager in planning a budget may not actually state the purpose nor list the objectives, but it would be an inadequate job in the final analysis unless he had developed a plan around them.

Next, *basic assumptions* should be considered. It is almost always necessary to make some assumptions on which to base a plan. For example, if the faculty is planning a nursing education curriculum, will sufficient funds be supplied by the state? Or, is the plan based on the assumption that students will pay the additional costs involved? Will the program have certain responsibilities to local hospitals?

The fourth step is that of setting up *policies.* At this point it is seen that guidelines are needed to assist in making decisions. Alternatives are usually offered which require a choice, which in turn may affect the plan in several ways. By way of illustration should it be the policy of the college in a nursing education program to eliminate all but a few of the so-called liberal arts courses in favor of those in specialized nursing care? Policies of many kinds need to be considered thoughtfully in areas of time, money, staff, agencies, and so on. Naturally the advice from many sources is sought before policies are laid down as part of the over-all plan.

Fifth, the matter of *relationships* is an important factor in planning. Probably any plan will affect, or will be affected by, other plans. That is, all sorts of events and situations should be reviewed as having a relationship with the proposed plan. It is impossible to foresee accurately all of these relationships, but it is helpful to list the significant ones at the time the plan is being worked out. Using the nursing curriculum as a point, it would certainly be appropriate to consider what agencies in the community would be interested in the over-all program. Should the college personnel bring in the local Red Cross workers in an advisory capacity? What should be the relationship with the R.N. groups?

The sixth step centers upon the important aspect of *tasks.* Perhaps a great deal of actual planning may begin with this step since it seems to be the practical phase of getting down to the heart of the job at hand. Certainly it is necessary that one foresee what will be undertaken in carrying out a plan in terms of describing as completely as possible each specific task. In this kind of planning the following items are listed:

—*resources available:* it is obvious that institutional, community, and other resources must first be considered;
—*resources required:* in order to do an effective job the actual money, equipment, facilities, and the like need to be described;
—*a time schedule:* estimated dates for completing the various steps in carrying out a task should be decided upon;
—*responsibilities:* the person responsible for the over-all job as well as other individuals and what shall be their duties need to be described;
—*major problems:* a review of what has been planned should be made in light of anticipated problems that may be obstacles in completing a specific task.

The final step in planning is *evaluation.* From the first step of gathering facts to the listing of each unit of effort or task, the important last step should be that of summarizing and checking to see if the plan is sound and consistent. A double check should reveal that the tasks have been described clearly, the resources studied carefully, the time schedules set realistically, and the responsibilities and major problems have been listed in detail. In addition, the planners will ask:

1. Are the purposes and objectives clearly stated and understood?
2. Are the basic assumptions realistic and sensible?

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[1] Acknowledgment to Mr. Carroll Towne from the Washington Center for Metropolitan Studies, Washington, D.C.

3. Do the policies reinforce and support the objectives?
4. Do all of the tasks support the main objectives? Are the other objectives supported by one or more task?
5. Are time schedules in harmony with the basic assumptions, the objectives, and the resources that are available and required?

The junior college faculty member and the administrator may consider this kind of over-all planning in all phases of their work. It is usually helpful to "exchange notes" and get criticisms from several persons for review and comment on the first draft of a plan. Perhaps a few standard questions ought to be kept uppermost in mind before and after the planning takes place: What will the college have to show for all of this work? Who will benefit? Will it really be worthwhile? In any event, the basic essentials of planning as described here will require greater effort on the part of the individual, but it is believed that greater accomplishments will be made because planning is done in a logical, systematic manner.

WILSON F. WETZLER is the Dean of Manatee Junior College, Bradenton, Florida.

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KENTUCKY PROVIDES MODEL FOR BUILDING A CONSORTIUM

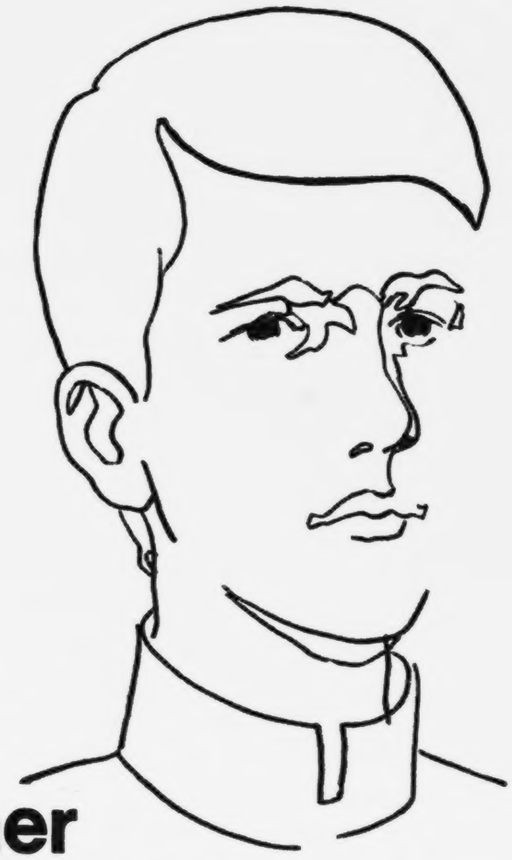
by Selden Menefee, Director, AAJC Program With Developing Institutions

The Kentucky regional conference in Lexington was a milestone in the Program With Developing Institutions. In a single day, working late into the evening on September 5, the six member colleges attending hammered out a plan for a statewide consortium of junior colleges and brought it into being.

The procedure adopted was an exercise in systems analysis, as propounded on the spot by consultant Dr. Morris Norfleet of Morehead State University. Action was taken on each of the following steps:

1. The decision to form a consortium. The purpose: Cooperative use of grants under Title III of the Higher Education Act and other public and private sources of funds, including EPDA and Upward Bound. This was unanimously approved by the college representatives.
2. Identification of the institutions to be involved. Several decisions were made here: The consortium will be statewide (though a majority of colleges joining will be in the Appalachian region of Eastern Kentucky). It was decided that both private and public colleges should be part of the consortium, but that four-year colleges should not be included at this time except for "cooperating institutions."
3. Election of officers: Dr. Troy Eslinger, President of Lees Junior College in Jackson and regional coordinator of the Program With Developing Institutions, was unanimously elected chairman of the consortium. Dean Doster of Alice Lloyd College in Pippa Passes was elected secretary.
4. Identification of possible areas to be included. The following were listed by unanimous consent, for consideration at this point:
    (1) Student recruitment: a. Talent search; b. Articulation with secondary schools.
    (2) Faculty recruitment: pooling of efforts to secure good teachers.
    (3) Long range planning (faculty and administration.)*
    (4) Computer services
    (5) Learning resources and ETV*
    (6) Experimental cooperative or work and study programs*
    (7) Curriculum and student needs (student life programs)*
    (8) Curriculum development for the disadvantaged
    (9) Institutional planning and systems development*
    (10) Faculty and administrative improvement*
    (11) Developmental programs
    (12) Institutional research
    (13) Student personnel services.
5. Date for the next meeting was set for Morehead State University. At that meeting representatives of all Kentucky junior colleges desiring to join the consortium worked out details and priorities of the joint program, and prepared for what may be the first of several applications for assistance to different funding agencies.- Developing Junior Colleges newsletter, No. 15, September 18, 1968.

* (Note: These areas were the six chosen for special projects in six colleges which applied for Title III aid for the special Kentucky consortium. It was funded for $350,000 in April, 1969. - S.M.)



Higher Education's Newest Student

A Synthesis of Research on Today's Junior College Student

*By K. Patricia Cross**

College students have long been of fascination to the American people who are alternately proud, angry, amused, baffled, and bewildered by each succeeding college generation. The protesting activist of the 1960's appeared in startling contrast to the silent generation of the 1950's. The veterans of the late 1940's brought new academic intensity to the campuses that had coped with the enthusiastic cause-chasers of the 1930's. It is tempting to describe each generation of college students by labeling its leaders and to regard each new characterization as the advance guard of new directions in higher education.

At the risk of sounding heretical in my times, I should like to suggest that under all the noise and fanfare of today's protesting activist, one of the greatest transitions in history is taking place in the composition of the American college student body.

Higher education has just about reached the saturation point for the bright youth from the upper socioeconomic levels, since 80 to 90 per cent of this group are now in college. Higher education's newest student is necessarily going to come from the second and third quartiles in ability and from the lower socioeconomic strata of our society.

Anyone who has the temerity to predict the character of future generations of college students in our tumultuous days starts with the observation that these are changing times. And it is a truism to add that young people are a product of their times, but it is a research fact to state that they are very much a product of their past experiences and especially of their home environment.

Unlike the activist who casts the image for the 1960's, the coming generation represents a quite different segment of our society. The activist is in reality the traditional college student—albeit perhaps in wolf's clothing. He is the bright child of liberal, affluent, college-educated parents, and he is a product of the culturally and educationally advantaged environment that has been represented in the college-going population of this country for a hundred years. Furthermore, he attends the oldest and most selective of the traditional four-year colleges and universities. In vivid contrast to this student is higher education's newest student. He represents the American goal of universal higher education. He comes from the lower socioeconomic levels, and he has less academic aptitude and lower motivation for intellectual pursuits than the traditional college student. He is to be found, not in the well-established four-year college, but in the emerging junior and community colleges.

Today's Junior College Student

Over the past decade, researchers have collected a vast array of facts about the characteristics of students. I have attempted to synthesize these data into a coherent picture of today's junior college student—giving special attention to the ways in which he differs from the traditional college student for whom the present system of higher education is planned. While both the quality and quantity of research are sufficient to permit useful generalizations, it should be remembered that to generalize is to ignore temporarily the infinite variety of individuals and institutions.

A fundamental characteristic differentiating two-year college students from four-year college students in the 1960's is the socioeconomic background from which they come. In America we have long attempted to perpetuate the folklore that it is not who your parents are or what your background is, but rather what you are and where you are going that counts. It is only recently that we have faced the reality that family background plays a very large role in determining what an individual is and, perhaps to some extent, what he is capable of becoming. We now know, through educational research, that various indices of the socioeconomic status of the parents bear an important relationship to who goes to college, where they go, how long they stay, and even why they go.

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* This summary of Dr. Cross's study was presented at the recent Educational Testing Service Western Regional Conference. The full report, titled *The Junior College Student: A Research Description*, was published during the summer. The study was sponsored by the AAJC-ETS Joint Committee.

In a longitudinal study of some 10,000 high school graduates recently reported by James Trent and Leland Medsker[1] of the Center for Higher Education at the University of California at Berkeley, it was found that most children of upper socioeconomic families entered college regardless of their ability—84 per cent of the upper two-fifths in ability entered college, but 57 per cent of those in the lowest two-fifths of the class also went to college. The bright child of a father who worked at a low-level job, however, had about a 41 per cent chance of going to college. If he also had low ability, his chances fell to 20 per cent.

The figures are just about as dramatic when the question posed is where young people go to college. Two large national studies[2] reported that approximately two-thirds of the students attending private universities were the children of college-educated fathers, whereas the proportion of this group in junior and state colleges dropped to about one-third. There are, of course, numerous ways of measuring socioeconomic status, and Project Talent[3] used seven different indices, including mother's and father's education, father's occupation, number of books in the home, whether or not the student had a room, desk, typewriter of his own at home, etc. They found that the junior college groups fell between the noncollege and four-year college group *on every index* of socioeconomic status.

In other words, America's newest college student has spent the first seventeen years of his life in a different cultural environment from that of the students we're accustomed to teaching in college. He is less likely to have seen good books and magazines around the home, less likely to have been able to retreat to a room of his own, and less likely to have been exposed to discussions of world affairs at the dinner table. Research to date indicates that students reflect rather faithfully the interests and concerns of their parents.

Parents and Persistence

One of the natural accompaniments of a home which is intellectually oriented is an interest in college on the part of the parents and the students. SCOPE,[4] which is an acronym for School to College: Opportunities for Postsecondary Education, is a longitudinal study of some 90,000 high school students as they enter the adult world of jobs, college, or marriage. The research, sponsored by the College Entrance Examination Board, is presently underway at the Center for Higher Education at Berkeley under the director of Dale Tillery. The first wave of data from the SCOPE study is now in, and it offers testimony to the important role played by the parents in the higher education of their children. SCOPE data show that students who entered four-year colleges were much more likely to receive parental encouragement than either those who did not enter college or those who entered junior colleges. Not only were the parents of college students more definitely interested in further education, but they were also more likely to have expressed an opinion to their children. Almost half (47 per cent) of the young people who did not enter college perceived no particular parental interest in the matter. Twenty per cent of the junior college group and only 14 per cent of the four-year college students reported this type of parental indifference.

One might hypothesize that the student who started college despite the relative indifference of parents would be more likely to be highly motivated to complete his college education. But this appears not to be the case. Parental attitudes toward college also bear a strong relationship to *persistence* in college. Seventy per cent of the college students who remained in college over the four-year period of the Medsker-Trent study had stated, as high school seniors, that their parents definitely wanted them to attend college. Only 48 per cent of the students dropping out during the four-year period felt that college was important to their parents; for bright high school seniors who did not attend college, only 15 per cent reported having received parental encouragement.[5]

Financial Concerns and Sources

The obvious question to be raised in discussing parental encouragement on the part of those in the lower income brackets is, is consideration of higher education stifled because of the expense involved? If so, students appear not to recognize it in their answers to questionnaire items. In the SCOPE survey,[6] only 1 per cent of the high school seniors who entered junior or senior colleges and 5 per cent of the noncollege youth stated that their parents would like for them to go to college but felt that they couldn't afford it. When asked, "What do you think is the one most likely reason you might not go to college?" only about 14 per cent of each group (noncollege, junior college, and senior college) picked "too costly." The data collected by the American Council on Education[7] (ACE) are similar. Roughly one-third of both junior and senior college freshmen said they had *no* concern about finances; only about ten per cent of each group confessed to having a "major concern" about financing a college education. To judge from the questionnaire responses, approximately equal proportions of junior and senior college students worry about money for higher education.

And yet, the sources of money for college are quite obviously different for the two-year and four-year college freshmen surveyed by the ACE.[8] Junior college students tended to lead senior college students in the percentages obtaining money through employment during college, summer employment, and personal savings. Larger percentages of four-year college students reported receiving scholarships, parental aid, federal government assistance, and loans. The sources of financial assistance reflect, in part, the financial aid available in the junior and senior colleges; scholarships and parental assistance are more likely to be available to the four-year college student, whereas the junior college student is forced to rely more heavily on his own resources.

Accessibility

More dramatic behavioral data are provided by Medsker and Trent's study[9] of the college attendance rates in sixteen cities which were similar in demographic and industrial features but different in the type of public college available in the community. It was found that the impact of local opportunities for college was most vivid for the high ability students from low socioeconomic levels. Whereas 80 per cent of the bright youth from high socioeconomic backgrounds went to college, even if there were none in the local community, only 22 per cent of the lower socioeconomic group of *same level of ability* entered college when there were no local colleges.

The presence of a junior college more than doubled the likelihood of college for bright students whose fathers were employed at the lower occupational levels. In junior college communities, 53 per cent of the bright students from lower socioeconomic levels entered college, whereas in communities with no public college facilities, only 22 per cent of such students entered college. Between these extremes were the other communities studied by Medsker and Trent. Colleges in the multiple-college communities enrolled 49 per cent of bright, low socioeconomic youth, state college towns 41 per cent, and extension center localities 35 per cent.

One can argue that the existence of a junior college in the local community attracts new students to higher education because of the reduction in cost, because of the "educational awareness" brought to the community, or because less intense motivation is required for continuing education in the same community. Perhaps all three factors are usually involved.

Most research is in agreement that students entering junior colleges are influenced more by practical considerations and less by intellectual interests than are their peers in four-year colleges.[10] "Academic reputation" is the most common reason for the selection of a university, whereas "low cost" and "close to home" frequently lead all other reasons given for attending a junior college. When high school seniors in the SCOPE study[11] were asked what type of college they would *like* to attend even if they were not now planning to enter college, the students who later entered four-year colleges were more likely to select a college description which involved emphasis upon studying, serious discussions with faculty, and the availability of concerts and lectures than were junior college and noncollege youth who tended to prefer a college emphasizing vocational training. By and large, junior college students tend to major in the applied fields, and Knoell and Medsker[12] found that over half of the junior college students were enrolled in business administration, engineering, and education, even after transfer to a four-year institution.

The business-practical orientation of the junior college student is further illustrated by the personal objectives which he considers "essential or very important." In responding to each of seventeen objectives in the ACE questionnaire, the percentage of junior college students exceeded that for four-year college students by as much as 7 per cent on only two objectives—to be well-off financially and to succeed in business. Senior college freshmen were more likely than junior college students to attribute importance to objectives such as helping others in difficulty, joining the Peace Corps or VISTA, becoming a community leader, keeping up with political affairs, and developing a philosophy of life.[13] Whereas young people from the upper socioeconomic levels tend to see the college experience as an opportunity for intellectual stimulation and the development of the mind, the children from lower socioeconomic families are more likely to see a college education as the pathway to better jobs and upward social mobility.

These differing interests of groups of students are apparent in their responses to direct questions regarding their educational goals. But more subtle measures of personality characteristics reinforce these findings. Data from the SCOPE study[14] reveal large differences between the intellectual interests of noncollege youth and junior and senior college students. Dale Tillery and his colleagues in the SCOPE research used a short experimental intellectual disposition scale. This scale, which was derived from the Omnibus Personality Inventory, measures characteristics such as flexibility, openness to new ideas, interest in ideas for their own sake rather than for their practical application, and the like. The scale clearly differentiated among the four-year college students, junior college students, and noncollege youth. Fifty-nine per cent of the four-year college students, 36 per cent of the junior college students, and only 23 per cent of the noncollege group scored in the top third on this measure of intellectual interest.

To no one's surprise, intellectual interests tend to parallel intellectual ability. The SCOPE study also involved the administration of a brief test of academic aptitude to the high school seniors in the sample. When the test scores were grouped into the top, middle, and lowest thirds, it was found that 71 per cent of the students who entered four-year colleges scored in the top one-third compared with 36 per cent of the junior college students and only 16 per cent of the noncollege youth. While virtually all research is in agreement that across broad samples, four-year college freshmen make higher mean scores than two-year college students on almost any of the traditional tests of academic ability, it should be remembered that there are individual junior college students who score very high, indeed, on tests of intellectual ability and there are junior colleges in this country whose students make higher mean scores than those in some four-year colleges.

Not in the Mold

It should be quite obvious, by this time, that today's junior college students are not seeking what we have come to regard as quality in traditional higher education. The problem, I submit, is not in the students but in our singular model for excellence in postsecondary education. There is some evidence that our secondary schools have also adopted an academic model that may be quite inappropriate for large numbers of students. Worse yet, rather than implementing the educational goal of helping young people to develop their potential, we may be doing considerable damage to the self-esteem and feelings of worth of the majority of young people.

It is painfully obvious that higher education's newest student does not fit the academic mold in their concepts of themselves. The SCOPE data[15] show that 57 percent of the four-year students felt that they were "definitely able" to do college work, but only 29 per cent of those entering junior colleges expressed such confidence. Students' estimates of their teachers' ratings of them followed the same pattern: 75 per cent of the four-year college group felt that their high school teachers would rate them good or excellent students, whereas their confidence dropped to 41 per cent for junior college students. Junior college students were more likely than four-year college students to feel that their high school teachers went too fast and they were less likely to feel that their teachers understood them.

The feelings of academic inferiority of the junior college student were also expressed in the ACE questionnaire[16] which listed seventeen traits and asked students to indicate the abilities on which they felt they were "above average."

The pattern of different abilities in the two-year and four-year college groups was apparent in the students' answers. Larger proportions of senior college students rated themselves above average on traits such as academic ability, drive to achieve, leadership ability, mathematical ability, intellectual self-confidence, and writing ability. The *only* traits on which larger proportions of junior college students than four-year college students rated themselves above average were: athletic ability, artistic ability, defensiveness, and mechanical ability.

The SCOPE questionnaire[17] used a somewhat different form of question for studying student perceptions of their abilities. Whereas the ACE questionnaire asked students to indicate the abilities on which they felt they were "above average," the SCOPE questionnaire asked for their "best" abilities. The differences between percentages for junior and senior college groups were extremely small in both approaches, but the patterns were consistent. High school seniors in the SCOPE study who later entered four-year colleges reported that their best abilities were in reading, mathematics, writing, music, conversation, and public speaking. The junior college group had larger proportions stating that their best abilities were: working with tools and machines, painting and drawing, sports, and cooking or sewing. Both the ACE and SCOPE data suggest a tendency for the more academically oriented senior college students to feel competent in the academic and verbal pursuits, whereas the junior college students perceive their strengths in the nonacademic tasks.

Traditional Measures

Certainly we need to explore further students' feelings about their own abilities. Is the school experience so pervasive that the nonacademically oriented student learns to respond generally with "below average"—or are there areas, perhaps not related to present school activities, in which he could experience success and feelings of personal worth?

One cannot help observing that there is little in most elementary and secondary school programs which is designed to help the less academically oriented achieve a more successful school experience. And this observation is reflected in the responses of the students. The SCOPE noncollege group showed the greatest dissatisfaction with the amount of freedom which was permitted in selecting high school courses, whereas the four-year college students indicated the least desire for change in this area. It is also of interest to observe that 83 per cent of the four-year college group found their high school courses "very useful" as preparation for college; a much smaller proportion (48 per cent) of the noncollege group found the courses useful for their immediate futures in the labor market.

One thing stands out clearly in this review: we possess only traditional measures to describe a student who does not fit the tradition. The inevitable result is that we picture America's newest college student as being less adequate than his peers at the tasks of higher education—*as those tasks have developed over the years for a different type of student.* We must conclude that intellectual dimensions sharply differentiate junior college students, as a group, from senior college students. The junior college student is less able—on our *present* tests; he is less intellectually oriented—on our *present* measures; and he is less motivated to seek higher education—in our *traditional* types of colleges. If we pose the same tasks for all institutions of higher education, then we run the risk of having the junior college become a watered-down version of the four-year college. Such an eventuality, of course, would subvert the purpose and concept of the junior college, one of the most challenging innovations in higher education of this century.

Future Task

It hardly seems likely that we will "help each student develop to his fullest potential" by offering a single scheme of opportunities, rewards, and punishments. The great future task is to investigate the ways in which the junior college student differs in *kind*, or in pattern of abilities, rather than in *degree* from the traditional college student.

Arthur Jensen notes that: "Literal equality of educational opportunity—if interpreted to mean that we treat all children exactly alike—makes as much sense as a doctor giving all his patients exactly the same prescription. Even giving every patient different amounts of the same medication would be disastrous. The parallel in education is to be avoided also."[18]

If we wish to avoid offering a weak senior college prescription to the junior college student, then we must begin the long and difficult search for new measures and new programs specifically designed for higher education's newest student.

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CREATING A GOOD CLIMATE

Good Student Personnel Policies Help More than Publicity Gimmicks

By Joseph W. Fordyce

Two assumptions underlie my thinking on student personnel policies and how they affect the climate of an institution.

The first is that students do, despite the evidence that many college administrators believe to the contrary, constitute perhaps the most important of our publics.

I have sometimes heard remarks concerning student evaluation of instruction to the effect that these immature young people can hardly be expected to know anything about the content of education, let alone its process.

If businesses operated on the assumption that their customers lacked the maturity and ability to judge both the process and the product of their efforts, bankruptcies and business failures would indeed be commonplace.

No institution has a better opportunity than education to gather for itself a large body of devoted followers. Yet, when the critics of education loosed their recent tirades, still and quiet were the voices of the general public, composed of people who themselves had years of opportunity for seeing for themselves what was good and what was bad in public education. Certainly here was an instance to indicate the grave results of a failure to recognize each generation of students as a public whose active favor is greatly to be desired; an instance that almost proved to be disastrous.

Then, too, the student population is closely linked to another important public, that composed of students' parents and their close friends and acquaintances. In a recent survey seeking opinions about the work of Florida's public junior colleges, respondents had an opportunity to indicate the major source of the information upon which they based their opinions about the work of the junior college. In the sample pertaining to Central Florida Junior College, by a large margin, the most frequently mentioned source of information was a relative or friend who himself had attended the college. Directly or indirectly, therefore, students are our most important public.

The second assumption that underlies our thinking has to do with the word "climate" that has appeared prominently in recent years. Let the record show that I am no great admirer of this word except as it pertains to that natural phenomenon, the best aspects of which may be experienced daily in our own sunshine state. I must confess that for me the word "climate," in the Madison Avenue connotation, has something of the quality of "winning friends and influencing people," and for this concept I have no ambition except to sit back and watch the old cookies crumble, as I feel certain they will, if we put much reliance in merely putting on a *show* of concern for our students.

I am here trying to draw the same sort of distinction between climate and real personality that our mothers and fathers and Sunday School teachers, all taking for their texts an appropriate moral lesson drawn from *McGuffey's Eclectic Reader,* made between the words "reputation" and "character." Certainly I hope that climate, as we are here discussing it, is more closely allied to all of the favorable aspects of character than to the more nearly surface qualities presumed to be associated with mere reputation.

Emerson, you will recall, quotes Michelangelo in his advice to the young sculptor, "Do not trouble yourself too much about the light on your statue," he said, "the light on the public square will test its value." Emerson continues, "In like manner, the effect of every action is measured by the depth of the sentiments from which it proceeds."

The Hawthorne General Electric study indicated clearly that it is interest in and for people rather than the specifics of what we do to or for them that wins support and loyalty, so much so, in fact, that such concern produces positive values even when the specific actions taken are those that would ordinarily be considered as negative and nonproductive.

To review, we are assuming, first, that students and their friends constitute important publics, the careful nurturing of whom constitutes an essential role for the public junior college. We also assume that seriousness of purpose, an honest concern for the welfare of our students, must be the keystone supporting the foundation of our attempts to build a favorable climate; gimmicks won't work!

If you then can assume with us that the student public is an important one and that the beauty of our climate must be more than "skin deep," it follows that policies must be honest, straightforward, and conducive to the most effective utilization of the opportunities of the institution.

I remember a distinguished professor who upon one occasion, his patience with certain aspects of the university's services having worn thin, proceeded to offer a tirade that went something like this: "I have seen some universities run for the professors, quite a number that have been run for the football team, a number of others that were run for the board of trustees, and even an occasional one run for the students, but this is the first university that I have ever seen that was run for the food services!"

Certainly one doesn't have to be on a campus for a long time before he can begin to discern the primary power structure that motivates much of the important behavior of the persons who are indicating policy of the institution either through action or through inaction. It is the bone of our contention that educational institutions that are honestly operated for the students are the ones that in the long run will produce the most favorable climates not only for the students themselves but for all of the other publics of the institution.

What are some of these areas of student relationships in which policies have been adopted, either thoughtfully or carelessly, that have an important bearing upon the attitudes, feelings, beliefs of the students and therefore the climate of the institution? I have chosen five such areas although I am sure these are merely typical of a number of other areas that could be discussed. They include regulations, procedures, offerings, activities, and student services.

Regulations

How long has it been since you have made a careful and searching reading of the regulations affecting student life at your institution? There are many institutions I know where the regulations are given careful scrutiny. But, I am firmly of the opinion that most institutions have not done so within the memory of man, or if they have, the review has been made by the same individual who wrote the regulations with the result that if they convey meaning they convey it only to that individual. I have in mind such a regulation and I identify the guilty party only for the sake of protecting the innocent. It reads:

> *In departments that regularly offer tutorial for credit (courses #99) in the fall and spring terms, a Harvard or Radcliffe college junior or senior who is candidate for honors may, subject to the regular limitations and procedures in effect in his department, receive credit for one-half course of tutorial in the summer provided he is taking at least one other half course in the summer school and provided a regular tutor in the department who will be in residence throughout the session is willing to undertake the supervision of his work.*

That is the end of the sentence but I can assure you not the end of the regulation. Or take this one: "No absences are allowed."

As we go from the undecipherable and the impossible we sometimes encounter another sort of situation. A regulation reads, "For graduation the student must have earned in all academic work a C average." It seems straightforward, honest, easy to understand, and clear-cut in its implications, but what happens? The student presents an average of 1.9 and almost immediately he will find some champion on the campus who assures him that "regulations are made to be broken," and that surely no one intends to *enforce* the regulation. How immoral can we be? How can students learn that education has any honest purpose if they see so little relation between our words and our actions?

What then is our recipe for a favorable climate as it is affected by student regulations? First, limit the scope of regulations to really important matters. Second, scrap the whole body of regulations periodically and begin with a new set as it is needed. Third, make them say what they mean and help everyone in the institution to understand that they mean what they say.

Procedures

Let's look now at a few of the typical procedures and administrative devices held near and dear to the hearts of many institutions. I think I will need only to name a few of these before you begin to experience some guilt feelings. Think with me, for example, about the admissions process, the registration procedures, our facilities and procedures for housing, the entire system of examinations and grading. I could add others, but already I feel as if I'm playing the role of Scrooge's "Spirit of Christmas Past." At the risk, however, of adding to your discomfort, let's look at some of these procedures.

Take admissions, for example. It seems to me that here most of our procedures and statements are designed primarily to enhance the prestige of the college or to explain away our feelings of defensiveness. On the one hand we turn away a deserving student who should be admitted and who deserves an opportunity for further education, mainly on the grounds that some other college has denied him or will deny him and that the comparative picture would be unfavorable to our status. Or, on the other hand, we admit students for whom we have no appropriate program and force them to go into programs in which their chances of success are intolerably restricted and then defend our high failure rate on the grounds of the most horribly misused and overused term in the whole educational jargon, "academic standards." Even if we admit those that we should admit and deny those we should deny, we seem to glory in making the entire procedure as confusing and as difficult for our prospective students and their parents as we possibly can.

And once admitted, never for a moment do we give them an opportunity to believe that their difficulties are over. We subject them to orientation programs and registration procedures that undoubtedly are the chief twentieth century remnant of the Spanish Inquisition. It is a rare and unusual college or university that has improved on registration procedures since the time you and I first encountered this depressing activity as beginning undergraduates. Even the advent of machines, it seems to me, has done little to help minimize the effects of this diversionary tactic, except, perhaps, as one wise and hardened registrar has pointed out, it does give the student at some institutions the one ray of hope for some individual attention by bending his IBM card.

In housing, only recently have most colleges and universities given attention to the fact that students are indeed persons in pursuit of education and that every aspect of their lives during the short period of time they spend in college should be so directed as to supplement and complement that which goes on within the classroom itself. In most colleges and universities we have only begun to scratch the surface in terms of understanding and translating into blueprints the factors that will contribute toward making students' housing a positive and direct contribution to students' development.

In my own opinion, concern for housing conditions may be one of the greatest problems still to confront us in institutions that are essentially commuters' colleges. We have so far taken the attitude and largely adopted the policy that commuters' colleges have essentially no responsibility in this area. Actually in many community colleges 15 to 20 per cent of the students live away from home and we have done relatively little to insure that housing conditions for these students contribute to, rather than detract from, the total educational enterprise. Even for students who live at home it is my notion that we could do much more than we are presently doing, in helping parents to understand the nature of their children's chief occupation while enrolled at the college and to provide ways for supplementing and enriching the facilities that exist for the off-campus hours.

In our examinations and grading systems we continue the inquisitorial practices that began in admissions and registration. Perhaps the best thing we can say about them is that we at least continue a consistent pattern and thereby avoid taking students by surprise, even though, in my opinion, a change in these procedures would be a happy surprise for all concerned.

The extent to which those procedures have become objects of fear, suspicion, and distrust has been well exemplified in recent months with the expressions of concern over the possible adoption of a comprehensive sophomore testing program. Certainly evaluation of educational achievement is necessary and desirable for all concerned. It remains for us to adopt polices and procedures that would enable students and their teachers and parents to see these devices as an integral part of the total educational process. An examination and grading system fairly devised and fairly administered could be seen as an educational opportunity and not as an opportunity for an educational pitfall.

In grading we continue to play the mystical numbers game of percentages and ascribe qualities to the number seventy hardly emulated in other affairs of life by the magical propensities of thirteen or seven and eleven. Even highly respectable institutions have been quoted as saying that they propose to (and here again is that horrible expression) "raise academic standards" by requiring seventy-one as the passing grade rather than seventy. This indeed is a giant step—but unfortunately a step in forty directions all at once.

Offerings

I shall not regale you with horrible examples from some of the other areas in which we come in contact with students, namely, course offerings and our program of student activities, in any detail except to point out the need for a constant reexamination in terms of student needs, which in turn must frequently be interpreted in terms of social needs.

In respect to course offerings the junior college not being immersed in petrifying tradition, is in the best position to respond quickly and efficiently to the new demands of society, as in the provision of terminal occupational courses. Of all of these, I think perhaps the programs leading to employment in the fields of technology are the most dramatic examples of response to student and social needs. But, we need to take care that we do not merely make provision for meeting our own psychological deficits and tailor these programs in such a way that they are mere bobtailed duplicates of four-year programs. It serves us and our students little to make these special and expensive provisions only to frighten students away by reiterating statements concerning highly elevated requirements of aptitude and ability beyond the actual fact of the matter.

Much further work needs to be done to explore programs designed to provide occupational outlets for students of average ability. Outside of technica education programs and of training for the secretarial fields, we have offered relatively little. We cannot justify our pride in being open door colleges unless the doors swing open to actual opportunities.

I do not mean here to reveal an obsession for vocational outlets of educational programs. Certainly, for many of our students, the values of a two-year liberal arts program need to be reinforced. It will remain true at the two-year as at the four-year level that for some students the distinctions between general and special education are merely pedantic.

Activities

As for student activities we need to remember that they provide for the students, to quote from a thoughtful one, "... our chance to live a little." This certainly suggests that student activities that are largely dictated by administration and faculty will quickly be relegated to a limbo of ineffectuality.

On the other hand, a *laissez-faire* attitude on the part of faculty and staff would be, in my opinion, equally unfortunate. If activities do not have educational value their place in and around an educational institution is certainly subject to question. If they do have such value, then true educators should have some contribution to make to them in order that these values can be realized.

Hopefully, we never reach the point when the discussions concerning student activities have to be couched in terms of students versus the faculty. It seems to me rather that we are striving for a democratic and cooperative arrangement that involves all of the members of the college community in activities that serve the purpose of the college as an educational institution.

Student Services

As the final example of relationships in which climate, good, bad, or indifferent is created, let us look at student services themselves. Certainly here exists unlimited opportunity for the creation of favorable climate because, in theory at least, the whole justification for student services is just that: service to the students. Unfortunately, however, the goal has often been missed. Student service administrators, deans of students, and even advisers and counselors have been in some instances at least as guilty of serving their own ends as has been any other segment of the staff and faculty of educational institutions. Tests for tests' sake, records for records' sake, even interviews for interviews' sake have perhaps been as common as art for art's sake.

Students have not always flocked to counselors for help with their problems; frequently they will report that they receive more assistance with the selection of courses, the selection of vocational choices, and the solution of personal problems from other members of the institution and society than from professional workers specifically designated for this purpose.

Too many student service administrators have been branded by the heavy hand of tradition, and their only basis for evaluation of services has been in terms of quantification rather than qualification. They have asked the question of each other, "Do you have this and do you do that?" with apparently little thought to the purpose or to the effectiveness of the practice on their own campuses. Again, too many counselors have been ambitious to use their role as a stepping stone to some administrative position that their professional color blindness leads them to believe occupies a spot in a more verdant valley.

Lest, however, we create any impression that these shortcomings in student services are unique in education, we must quickly point out that many of the poor relationships we have described are engineered by staff and faculty other than those belonging to student services, and that the most efficient and conscientious program of student services cannot create a healthy climate when the rest of the institution remains unventilated.

Rather, given a reasonable chance, student services can occupy a central and integral role in establishing and maintaining the character of the college. To do so, those responsible for student services must look constantly at the total aims and purposes of the educational institution of which they are a part. If these have not been clearly defined, student services can serve an important function by helping the other members of the staff and faculty to recognize their vagueness and ambiguity.

If and when the aims and purposes are clear, student services can cooperate with instructors and business services to insure that functions, activities, offerings are available through which the aims can be met. At least some of these activities must be provided directly by student services. Finally, student services have the primary obligation of working with every student to make sure that all of these opportunities are being used optimally for meeting the designated aims and purposes as they affect his particular and idiosyncratic development.

To begin, we assumed that the student public is an important public and that climate must indeed be a reflection of the true and abiding character of an institution. We have said that there are many areas and many relationships in which the institution has an opportunity to prove to the student that his development is the institution's most important product, and that the institution has indeed a character and constitution worthy of the student's time and energies. It follows that no gimmicks, nor Madison Avenue promotion and public relations, will suffice to create the desirable climate. Only seriousness of purpose, sincerity, and integrity will do. The only angle that is permissible is the *try* angle.

STUDENTS
HTS

RECOMMENDATIONS ON STUDENT RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

Some Procedural Considerations For the Two-Year College

By Richard C. Richardson, Jr.

Recently, increasing consideration has been given to the role of students in institutions of higher education. As a result of unrest at Berkeley and other major centers, administrators and faculty members alike have sought the meaning of the new student activism. The issue has been brought most clearly into focus by the publication of the *Joint Statement on Rights and Freedoms of Students* and its subsequent endorsement by a number of national organizations.

Now the issue confronts the two-year colleges even though many administrators and faculty members might prefer to cling to the thought that, "it can't happen here." In one sense, it is unfortunate that the issue of student rights and freedoms must be considered at a time when the rights and freedoms of faculty in the two-year college are still far from clear. But changing times produce issues that must be recognized and considered. This much, at least, is clear, *in loco parentis* is dead, and no one has yet named a successor.

The joint statement on rights and freedoms represents an attempt to establish a *Magna Charta* for students, and as such, provides at least a starting point for the discussion and recommendations which must follow. In two essential regards, however, the statement leaves unanswered questions of the most vital concern to two-year colleges. The first and most serious question involves the dimensions of the student's role within the academic community, while the second results from the university orientation of those who drafted the statement. There is no evidence to suggest, however, that either of these two questions from the point of view of the two-year college impairs the truths that are evident in the document itself.

Purpose

It is the purpose of this article to suggest special considerations germane to two-year institutions in the implementation of the joint statement. At the same time, an attempt will be made to outline the proper relationship of the student to the institution and to suggest organizational procedures through which involvement can be obtained.

It should be readily apparent that considerations pertaining to the rights and freedoms of students as well as those which concern student involvement in institutional governance must of necessity be discussed within the broader context of the roles of administrators and faculty. The assumptions that form the basis of the discussion which follows need to be identified to establish limits of applicability and to suggest the modifications that may be required for institutions not meeting these assumptions.

The first and most important assumption involves a commitment on the part of the administration to the importance of student and faculty involvement in institutional governance. The absence of such a commitment cannot be concealed and inevitably results in apathy or active resistance. The second assumption requires the existence of a representative faculty organization with real and defined responsibilities for policy formulation. Ideally, such an organization will involve administrators and faculty in joint deliberations. The exclusion of administrators from the organization as in the case of a faculty union or separate association may not invalidate the approach but will most certainly complicate communication and increase the difficulty of reaching an acceptable consensus.

No exact model represents the relationship between the two-year college and the student. The college is a creation of society to serve a number of distinct purposes. Chief among these may be the transmission of culture, the socialization of the individual, and the legitimation of ability, particularly with respect to occupational competencies. The college is responsible for accomplishing these objectives within a framework that is acceptable to its constituency. Presumably this implies, also, that the college must obtain the cooperation of those whom the process is designed to serve, for their association with the institution is of a voluntary nature. We may conclude, then, that the problem of the institution involves primarily the creation of the kind of atmosphere within which the objectives may be most efficiently achieved while, at the same time, securing the active cooperation of the student body in the process.

There was a time when our society was more closely knit, when the home served as a center for family life and the development of the child, and when the kinds of stimuli to which the developing individual was subjected could be controlled to a major degree. Under such circumstances, a respect for authority was ingrained in the youth to the point where it was natural for him to bow to the wishes of those perceived as older and wiser unless the actions of such authority figures became particularly unreasonable and oppressive. Under such circumstances, it was a simple matter for the college to assume the role of a parent and to use the authority so derived as a means of securing cooperation from the student body.

This happy set of circumstances no longer prevails; indeed, it has not prevailed for many years. Yet, we persist in operating as if the authority once accepted freely still existed. The preservation of this polite piece of fiction has resulted in the increasing disaffection and alienation of our student bodies accompanied by the necessity of strict measures and disciplinary action to ensure compliance. Inevitably, this cycle has become increasingly violent to the point where we have had to accept the need for breaking the chain through reconstruction of our basic concepts and procedures.

The danger in our belated reaction is that we shall seek in our well-intentioned haste to create a role for the student that he neither fits nor desires. There are those who would emancipate the student, give him the vote and, in effect, shape the institution's course by the outcome. Such an approach can never resolve the real problem—integration of the student as a part of the real college community, participation in the work of the institution in a manner and to the extent feasible considering his level of experience and maturity.

We need not become champions of student power to justify student involvement in institutional governance. If we accept as our basic premise the concept that some minimum level of student cooperation is essential to the preservation of an orderly community and that without such order all of our efforts must be to no avail, then we can concentrate on the means for achieving such cooperation without becoming involved in polemics concerning the needs of developing citizens in a democratic society. To be sure, such needs do exist, and the academic community must take them into consideration. This article, however, will concentrate on the more pragmatic reasons for student involvement.

It has been pointed out that the zone of acceptance for policies which result in effective action broadens as those who are affected participate in their determination. We know, too, that authority in an organization is dependent upon the assent of those governed. From these two statements we may conclude that if we are to achieve acceptance by students of organizational policies, we will need to involve them in the development of such policies or run the risk of arriving at conclusions that are unacceptable to those whom they are designed to serve.

We may conclude our discussion of the role of the student in the two-year college by emphasizing the following points. The student voluntarily associates himself with the academic community to achieve goals that he perceives are held in common with the institution. More often than not, there is not the correlation between objectives that is assumed. The need exists then for either the institution or the student to change. Perhaps there needs to be some accommodation on the part of each, but the institution cannot escape its responsibility to establish standards and to encourage growth. The compelling requirement then is for change on the part of the student. In the absence of accepted authority relationships, the only alternative is meaningful involvement of the student in the real business of governing the institution.

In this total process, let us not forget the student is first of all a member of the community at large and, as such, is entitled to the rights and the responsibilities of any citizen of comparable age and maturity. The restraints imposed by the institution ought to be the minimum required to ensure orderly achievement of objectives. All restraints should be directly related to the purposes for which the institution exists. The college has neither the right nor the responsibility to establish itself as a moral guardian, a parent surrogate, or an interpreter of local mores unless it has received a specific mandate from its constituency to that effect. While such a mandate may be identified in the case of some church-related private junior colleges, by and large, most two-year colleges have received no such mandate and merely delude themselves into believing that this is the case because of their own moral conviction or because of the vociferous actions of small pressure groups.

The college may be said to represent a community in which the administration provides the necessary level of management and coordination, the faculty provides educational leadership and services, while the students, as community residents, help to pay the bills and, consequently, share the rights common to all citizens in a democratic society. While the professional members of the staff have the responsibility for developing procedures, standards, and reasonable limitations with respect to matters that fall within the area of their particular competencies, they cannot escape accountability for their actions and, hence, need to devise reasonable procedures for learning how students react to policies. The fact that students do not elect faculty or administration places a premium upon the development of alternative procedures through which orderly dissent may effectively be expressed.

It is desirable for residents of any community to participate in regulating their own affairs insofar as this is practicable. From the standpoint of the institution, the more self-governance that exists among the student body, the less the need for institutional supervision and the greater the potential for the development of the individual. To this end, students should be encouraged to exercise primary responsibility for developing procedures, standards, and reasonable limitations with respect to matters that fall within the range of their competencies. In developing such procedures, they can benefit materially from learning the probable consequences of the selection of a particular alternative from the faculty who have a greater range of experience. Like the administration and the faculty, students need to be accountable for their actions.

Thus it may be seen that students and faculty play complementary roles, each learning from the other, and each making a unique contribution in the area of greatest competency.

Areas of Responsibility

The premise has been advanced that it is not in the best interests of those concerned for administration, faculty, or students to dominate in all matters relating to institutional operation. The task remains to spell out those areas of policy formulation suitable for the leadership and involvement of the various groups.

Before proceeding to this point, however, it will be helpful if we examine three key concepts in at least a superficial manner.

Administration, the first, may be considered as the day-to-day management of the institution within certain prescribed boundaries commonly referred to as policies and procedures.

The second, policy formulation, involves the procedures through which prescribed responses are developed to guide behavior with respect to certain classifications or situations. It includes both the development of responses to new situations and the reexamination of previously prescribed responses in the light of new information. Policy formulation should not be confused with policy implementation which takes place by administrative action in accordance with defined organizational procedures.

Third, we may consider the concept of review of administrative action. Obviously, administrative action is reviewed by those higher in the administrative hierarchy and by the board. It is equally important, however, that provisions for review of administrative action by faculty and students be considered. As noted earlier, such review will occur with or without the consent of the administration. The establishment of a procedure for review simply opens up communication channels and offers a constructive alternative to strikes and demonstrations.

The administration of the affairs of the institution must, of necessity, remain firmly in the hands of those assigned responsibilities within the structure of the formal organization. The policy formulation process, however, should involve both faculty and students and ought to include provisions for review of administrative actions. Areas of concern in the policy formulation process may be classified in three categories: matters of exclusive concern to the faculty and administration; matters of primary concern to administration and faculty but where involvement of students is desirable; and matters of primary concern to the students but where involvement of administration and faculty is desirable.

The following areas may be considered to represent matters that should be the exclusive concern of administrative officers and faculty committees:

1. Faculty appointment, reappointment, promotion to higher rank, termination, and tenure (Students should provide information to serve as a part of the basis for these decisions but should not be involved in deliberations.)
2. Staff salaries, fringe benefits, and teaching loads
3. Allocation of instructional funds
4. Administrative structure of the college

5. Provision of services to the community.

The following areas may be considered representative of matters where the primary leadership rests with the administrative officers and faculty but where student involvement is desirable:

1. Curriculum or course addition, revision, or deletion
2. Admission standards for curriculums and courses
3. Requirements for degrees and certificates
4. Class size
5. Alternations in the academic calendar.

In the following areas students should assume the role of primary leadership with administrative and faculty involvement and guidance:

1. Student publications
2. Student conduct and discipline not directly related to the classroom situation
3. Allocation of student activity funds
4. Recognition of campus student organizations
5. Coordination and approval of cocurricular activities
6. Approval of guest speakers invited by the student body.

In discharging the responsibilities enumerated above, the board of trustees, the administration, the faculty, and the student body should have as their joint responsibility the establishment and preservation of the following essential rights as defined in the *Joint Statement on Rights and Freedoms of Students:*

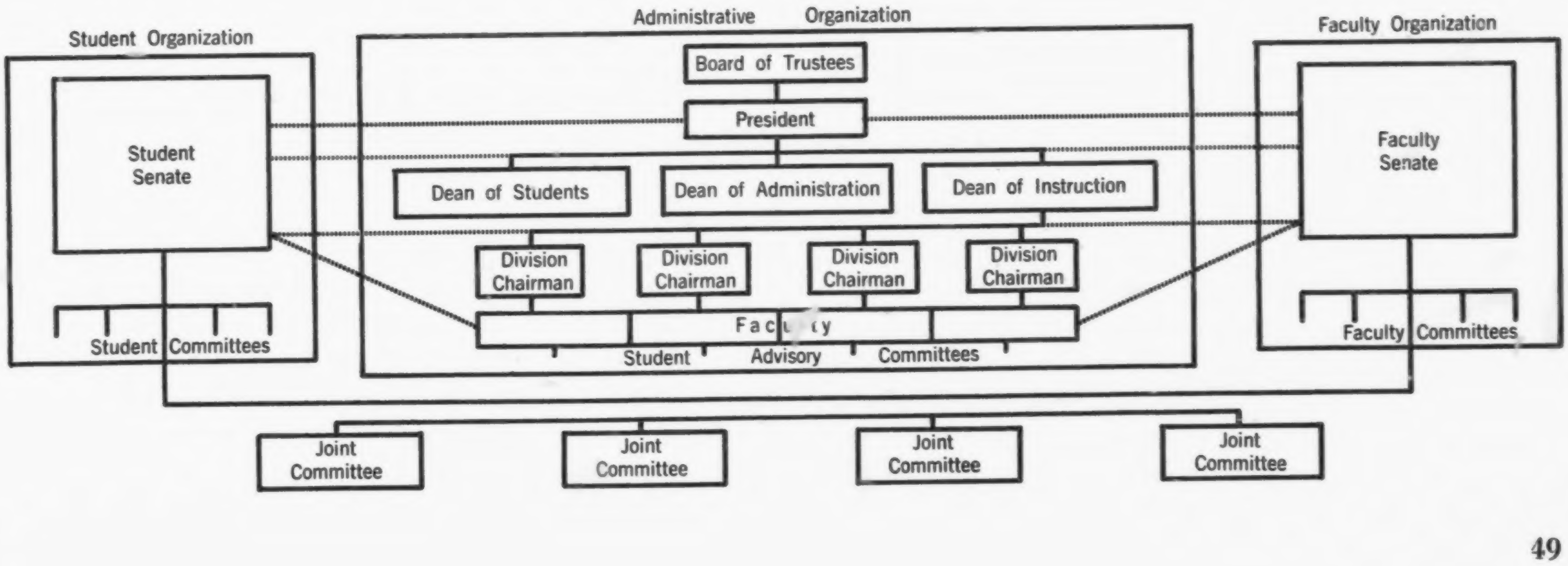
1. Freedom of expression in the classroom
2. Protection against improper academic evaluation
3. Protection against improper disclosure on the basis of classroom expressions
4. Confidentiality of student records
5. Freedom of association
6. Freedom of inquiry and expression in student organizations
7. Freedom of responsible expression in student publications
8. Freedom to exercise the rights of citizenship
9. Guarantee of due process in disciplinary proceeding.

While the student possesses the rights that have been enumerated above, these rights carry with them the responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy. Such responsibilities include:

1. Compliance with and support of duly constituted civil authority
2. Respect for the rights of others and cooperation to ensure that such rights are guaranteed, whether or not the views of those exercising such rights are consistent with their own
3. Cooperation to ensure that the will of the majority is implemented after due consideration has been given to contrary points of view
4. The exercise of dissent in a responsible manner and within a framework compatible with the orderly resolution of differences
5. Active support of college regulations established through the joint efforts of student and faculty leaders.

It is essential that this part of the discussion be preceded by the recognition of two fundamental prerequisites to student involvement in institutional governance and to the guarantee of student rights. The first of these is the presence of an active faculty organization that possesses real authority as well as a sense of security in its own prerogatives. Without being unduly pessimistic, it should be noted in passing that this fundamental prerequisite does not exist in the majority of two-year institutions

FLOW CHART
FOR POLICY FORMULATION


Administrative Organization
Student Organization
Faculty Organization
Board of Trustees
President
Student Senate
Faculty Senate
Dean of Students
Dean of Administration
Dean of Instruction
Division Chairman
Division Chairman
Division Chairman
Division Chairman
Faculty
Student Advisory Committees
Student Committees
Faculty Committees
Joint Committee
Joint Committee
Joint Committee
Joint Committee

today. If faculty are not actively involved in institutional governance, there is little hope that any attempt to involve students more actively can succeed.

A second barrier to meaningful involvement is the current reliance upon representative student governments which are neither representative nor governments and which have been completely disavowed by most of the student body who do not even bother to vote in elections. The *Report of the Study Commission on University Governance of the University of California at Berkeley* is a shocking indictment of student governments, but similar statements of lack of effectiveness have been appearing with increasing frequency during the past ten years. The truth of the matter is that these student governments have no real authority, are not integrated with the mechanisms for institutional governance, and are not respected by the student bodies. They serve primarily as popularity contests for those so inclined, and as means of convincing accrediting associations of student involvement.

It is not possible, however, for ongoing institutions to escape the necessity of basing any attempts to move in new directions on the organizational patterns which currently exist. The following recommendations, then, are based on the concept of reform of existing structures rather than the establishment of a completely new framework. New institutions unburdened by past follies might do well to give serious consideration to more radical reforms than those proposed in the following recommendations.

1. The two-year college should as a prerequisite to consideration of interpretation and implementation of rights and freedoms of students ensure that it has established an active and strong faculty organization promoting close relationships and two-way communication among all of the members of the professional staff and ensuring the involvement of the teaching faculty in institutional governance.

2. There should be a student organization with defined powers and responsibilities and an established place in the machinery for the development of institutional policies. Any matter considered desirable for student involvement or leadership as defined in the preceding section of this article would be considered by both the student and the faculty organization with the recommendations of each being reported to the president and to the board of trustees when desirable.

3. To improve communication between the two policy-recommending bodies, there should be representatives of each sent as observers to the other. Thus there would be student advisers to the faculty organization and faculty advisers to the student organization. It would be the responsibility of these advisers to comment on the point of view of their parent organization upon request, and to keep that

How Deans and Students See It

A panel of twenty-four persons—a student and an administrator from each of twelve colleges in the Midwest, South, and East—met at Vincennes University, Indiana, December 6-8, to try to reach a consensus on specific student rights and responsibilities in junior colleges.

The workshop, sponsored by the AAJC Program with Developing Institutions, had the help of consultants Richard C. Richardson, Jr., Jane E. Matson, Terry U. O'Banion, John Davitt, and Isaac K. Beckes who was chairman and host. The colleges represented were diverse in nature. However, the following excerpts from the results of the balloting show that general agreement was reached:

John Orcutt

1. *What is the relationship that should exist between the student and the two-year college?*
   - a. A relationship whereby the institution (faculty, students, administration, and community) establishes the purposes and minimum standards necessary to insure the existence of an ordered system with academic freedom, and relies upon the judgment of the students with respect to whether or not they accept those standards and ideals that do not infringe upon the rights of others within the institution.......... 19
   - b. A relationship in which decisions are made by those members of the academic community best fitted and/or most affected after formal consideration of the views of all segments.......... 3
   - c. A relationship whereby the institution establishes the minimum standards necessary to insure the existence of an ordered system and relies upon the culture of the community (in the broad sense) from which the student comes to determine mores 1
   - d. A relationship whereby the institution establishes standards and ideals, makes these standards and ideals clear to those whom it admits, but relies upon the judgment of the student with respect to whether or not they accept those standards and ideals that do not infringe upon the rights of others within the academic community.......... 1
   - e. An authority relationship similar to that which exists between parents, and sons and daughters in a family situation (sometimes referred to as *in loco parentis*).......... 0
2. *What should be the relative status of the administration, faculty, and students in the two-year college?*
   - a. There should be a college community approach to all matters that involve the three groups, but the approach should be so structured that students have at least an equal voice in matters that affect them most directly.......... 15
   - b. There should be a college community approach to all matters involving the three groups, but the approach should be so structured that students

organization informed of the activities of its counterpart.

4. Joint faculty-student standing committees should be established to deliberate and make recommendations to the two organizations. Faculty members should predominate, and there should be a faculty chairman for those joint committees where the matters considered involve areas of faculty leadership. Student members should predominate, and there should be a student chairman of committees involving matters of primary concern to the student. Typical committees where faculty members would predominate might include:

a. Curriculum committee
b. Academic standards committee.

In a similar manner, students would predominate on such committees as:

a. Student conduct and discipline committee
b. Student affairs committee.

The membership of such committees would be determined by the faculty organization and by the student organization. Such committees would report to the faculty and student organizations in all matters involving policy formulation and to a designated administrator in matters involving administration.

5. An attempt should be made to ensure representativeness of the student organization by the election of candidates from defined constituencies as opposed to the at large elections which are frequently the case at present. It is suggested that the division or department might serve as a basic reference point in defining constituencies.

6. Divisions and departments should be urged to consider students majoring in their disciplines as viable subgroups of the college and to schedule activities for them. This is particularly important in the case of large institutions where discipline preferences may be capable of serving as the focal points for colleges within the college to the end that smaller more manageable groups may be substituted

have primary voice in the matters that affect them most directly	8
c. The administration, faculty, and students should each have an equal voice in matters that affect all three groups	1
d. The administration and faculty should have the deciding voice in some decisions affecting the college community while students should have the deciding voice in other areas	0
e. The administration and faculty should have the deciding voice in all decisions affecting the college community	0

3. *To what extent should students be involved in the following areas:*
   (1) not at all
   (2) some student involvement
   (3) equal student involvement
   (4) primarily under student leadership
   (5) totally under student leadership

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
a. Faculty appointments	7	17	0	0	0
b. Faculty reappointments, promotion to higher rank & tenure	1	19	3	1	0
c. Student publications	0	0	1	12	11
d. Admissions standards for curriculums and courses	1	21	2	0	0
e. Class size	0	21	3	0	0
f. Allocation of instructional funds	0	20	2	2	0
g. Allocation of student activity fees	0	1	4	5	14
h. Curriculums or course addition, revision, or deletion	0	14	10	0	0
i. Administrative structure of the college	2	20	2	0	0
j. Staff salaries, fringe benefits	7	16	1	0	0
k. Teaching loads	5	15	4	0	0
l. Student conduct and discipline not directly related to classroom situations	0	1	5	9	9
m. Provision of services to the community	0	10	11	0	0
n. Recognition of campus student organizations	0	0	1	9	14
o. Approval of guest speakers invited by students	0	1	2	7	14
p. Alterations in the college calendar	0	12	12	0	0
q. Coordination and approval of cocurricular activities	0	2	14	8	0
r. Requirements for degrees and certificates	1	20	2	1	0
s. Selection of the president	5	16	3	0	0
t. Selection of college officers directly related to students, i.e., dean of students or director of student activities	2	13	8	0	0
u. Distribution of student-initiated literature on campus	0	0	5	9	10
v. Distribution of off-campus literature on campus	2	0	7	9	6

4. *Students should be guaranteed by action of the governing board the following rights and freedoms as defined in the joint statement on rights and freedoms:*	(yes)	(no)	(don't know)
a. Freedom of expression in the classroom	24	0	0
b. Protection against improper academic evaluation	24	0	0
c. Protection against improper disclosure on the basis of classroom expression	24	0	0
d. Confidentiality of student records	24	0	0
e. Freedom of association	22	0	2
f. Freedom of inquiry and expression in student organization	24	0	0
g. Freedom of expression in student publications	24	0	0
h. Freedom to exercise the rights of citizenship	24	0	0

for massive numbers of disoriented individuals. In this regard it would be well for departments or divisions to create student advisory committees that would meet with faculty members to foster communication and planning for improved student life. These advisory groups might also be involved in faculty meetings of the department or division where matters involving areas defined for student participation were discussed.

The drafters of the *Joint Statement on Rights and Freedoms of Students* clearly recognized the need for continuing interpretation and for careful study at the institutional level to ensure that machinery appropriate to the local environment might be developed. The recommendations advanced in this paper are not intended as the only approach or even the best approach to implementation. What is intended is that special emphasis be placed on the necessity of redefining relationships between students and institutions and of developing procedures through which students may participate in this redefinition. It also attempts to convey the fact that faculty and administration alike should recognize the inadequacy of existing arrangements and the undesirability of any approach that isolates any constituent group from full participation and communication with others who are engaged in the important task of policy formulation.

A suggested flow chart for policy formulation is shown on page 38. Dotted lines indicate channels of communication. Solid lines are lines of communication and authority. Policy matters of concern to faculty and student require action by both student and faculty organizations prior to final action. Recommendations of both organizations would be reported to the board of trustees when appropriate. Joint committees would provide the structure through which solutions acceptable to both groups might be obtained.

i. Guarantee of procedural due process in disciplinary proceedings	24	0	0
j. Freedom of a student's access to his own records	21	1	2
k. Freedom to pursue one's own cultural identity	19	1	3
5. *Students should be expected to actively accept the following responsibilities where an atmosphere conducive to real student participation exists, and where there are channels open to students to express their concerns with the same sort of integrity as other members of the college community:*	(yes)	(no)	(don't know)
a. Compliance with and support of duly constitutional civil authority	18	3	1
b. Respect for the rights of others and cooperation to insure that such rights are guaranteed, whether or not the views of those exercising such rights are consistent with their own	24	0	0
c. Cooperation to insure that the will of the majority is implemented after due consideration has been given to contrary points of view, but not to include the suppression of minority points of view	23	0	0
d. The exercise of dissent in a responsible manner and within a framework compatible with the orderly resolution of differences	17	4	1
e. Active support of college regulations established through the joint efforts of students, faculty and administration	15	5	4
f. The exercise of dissent within a framework compatible with the resolution of differences	20	2	2
g. Knowledge of college regulations established through the joint efforts of students, faculty, and administration	21	2	1
6. *There should be an exchange of representation between students, faculty and administration on senate, committees, and councils,* with students serving on faculty and administrative policy formulating bodies and with faculty and administration serving on student policy-formulated bodies	24	0	0

7. *The recommendations of a representative student government or recognized student group in areas defined as appropriate for student involvement should be:*

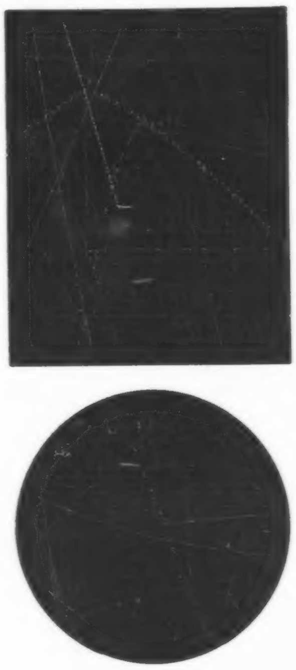
a. Reported to appropriate officers or committees in the institutional implementing process, but afforded a hearing by the governing body, at which students are represented, when all other channels have been exhausted without satisfactory disposition in the minds of those who made the initial recommendation	22
b., c., d., and e. (Reported to the dean of students or faculty advisor; the president; governing board at the discretion of the president or in all instances)	0
f. No answer	2

The colleges in the voting panel were:

1. Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College, Tifton, Georgia
2. Alice Lloyd College, Pippa Passes, Kentucky
3. Belleville Junior College, Belleville, Illinois
4. Wilson Campus of the Chicago City College, Illinois
5. Joliet Junior College, Joliet, Illinois
6. Macomb County Community College, Warren, Michigan
7. Meramec Community College, St. Louis, Missouri
8. Mount Olive Junior College, Mount Olive, North Carolina
9. North Florida Junior College, Madison, Florida
10. Paducah Junior College, Paducah, Kentucky
11. St. Catharine College, St. Catharine, Kentucky
12. Vincennes University, Vincennes, Indiana

Reflections of a Vice-President in Charge of Heresy

STUDENTS ARE A LOT LIKE PEOPLE



By Noel F. McInnis

In the October 1965 issue of the *Junior College Journal,* B. Lamar Johnson, speaking of the need for experimental junior colleges, suggested that the need be met by appointing "vice-presidents in charge of heresy." As Dr. Johnson explained:

> This proposal would provide a staff member—with no administrative responsibility—whose duty it would be to keep abreast of national developments and to initiate plans for exploiting them at his own institution, as well as to develop completely new plans for local use and application. Our vice-president would be a "dreamer." He would attend conferences and assemble "far out" proposals. He would needle administrators and his faculty colleagues and, in turn, be needled by them. He would study the findings of research and analyze their implications for his college. He would, in short, be a harbinger and instigator of change.

The appearance of Dr. Johnson's article coincided with the visit to our campus of Roger H. Garrison, who urged us to take the "vice-president in charge of heresy" idea seriously. Upon submitting to my administration a two and one-half-page job description for such a position, along with an application, I was awarded the greatest educational opportunity of my life. For over two years I have been dreaming, attending, assembling, needling, studying, analyzing, instigating, and consulting. Fortunately, I have also had some time for reflection on all this activity. I have come to the conclusion that the most-needed heresy of our time is the adoption of new *forms* of instruction which are based on the proposition that *students are a lot like people.*

This proposition is not merely an attempt to be clever. It is an attempt to be constructively heretical by raising the most pertinent of all questions about our present educational methods. The question is simply this: "Do these methods meet human specifications?" The answer, not quite so simply, is, "No, they do not."

It has become quite clear to me that our educational system is not designed primarily to human specifications, but to the specifications of data. Both specifications are essential but the human ones must come first, since it is people who have life to give to data and not vice-versa. People are dynamic, data are static.

People grow and develop, data only change. People need to know where and how to find relevant data which will facilitate their growth and development, and data need people to formulate and change it into the increasingly meaningful insights and ideas which make human growth and development possible. Thus, all procedures for the effective union of people and data must specify people as the focal point of the process. Unfortunately, our educational system specifies data as the focal point of the process. And after twelve years, sixteen years, or even more of being standardized to the specifications of data, people begin to forget that they are people. They begin to perceive themselves and others as the products of data, and they manipulate data. And thus our need to be reminded that they are still a lot like people.

Data-Centered Education

It is quite clear why our educational system is data centered. It is a component of a highly mechanized society. Like most systems in this society, our educational system is designed to take in raw materials at one end and turn out a product at the other. Have you ever heard school administrators or teachers talk fondly of one of their institution's illustrious alumni? "He's one of our finest products," you are likely to hear them say. American education is geared to turn out products. Its techniques are those of mass production, and can be compared with the assembly line.

Human raw material is brought onto the educational assembly line at the age of six (and before long, perhaps, it will be three), and proceeds annually from one station to the next, receiving standardized increments of graduated data input at each station. We identify these stations as "first grade," "second grade," "third grade," etc. The term "grade" describes the level of the data, not the student (except incidentally). At approximately the eighth, twelfth, sixteenth and even seventeenth, eighteenth, or nineteenth stations, certificates of inspection are attached to the human raw material to indicate that the specific data for all preceding stations is properly in place. This certification is called "graduation," but again please note that the data is first graduated *outside* of the student, before it is regraduated *inside* the student. Data is graduated first, with the human raw material finishing anywhere from second best (grade "A") to also ran (grade "F").

Assembly-line procedures are great for converting inanimate raw materials into standardized products, but they succeed only because the initial raw material is itself highly standardized. Assembly lines make uniform products only when they are manipulating uniform raw materials. Assembly-line procedures are barbaric when applied to people, because human raw material is not uniform. A six-year-old child is unique in the universe. When he is subjected to the mass production techniques of our educational system, and is forced to surrender his uniqueness, he finds himself on a *dis*assembly line. He is literally (in the psychic sense) dismantled. And we, the teachers, are his tormentors.

We torment our students because we are no more prepared to accept differentiated raw material than was Procrustes. Procrustes was one of the more notorious Greek gods, who distinguished himself by forcing all who passed his way to lie on his bed. Some passersby were too long for the bed, and he chopped them down to size. Other passersby were too short, and were stretched to fit the bed. All passersby were standardized to fit the specifications of Procrustes' bed.

We educators are the modern version of Procrustes. Some students come to us with knowledge which does not conform to our data, and we promptly cut them down to size. Others come with insufficient background to manipulate our data, so we shove it in all the harder. All who pass through our classes are thus standardized to the specifications of our data. Just as Procrustes could not bear to allow people to make their own accommodation to his bed, so we educators are reluctant to allow students to make their own accommodation to our data. *Our* choice, arrangement, and interpretation of the data is the only one we care to allow.

The assembly line model of education is inefficient, dehumanizing, dishonest, and just plain stupid.

It is inefficient because most of the data transmitted in this manner is either never learned or shortly forgotten—by both the teacher and the student.

It is dehumanizing because it reduces both teacher and students to a mechanical process of manipulating external signs and symbols which seldom are made relevant to the living experience of either party.

It is dishonest because it encourages teachers to be deceptive about their objectives, lest too many students achieve them; and because it similarly encourages students to be deceptive with one another, lest it be discovered that they either do or do not have the data most likely to be helpful at exam time.

And it is just plain stupid for reasons that became apparent to me in my first semester of teaching, when I sat down to make a final exam and found it necessary to consult both lectures and readings to do so. I found myself asking, "If I can't remember enough data to *give* an exam, why should I expect my students to remember enough data to *take* an exam?"

What Effect on Students?

When I found myself unable to make an examination which I expected my students to take, I was faced with another question: "Just what, specifically, are my objectives in this course anyway? What do I really want my students to be able to do when they have finished my course that they could not do at the beginning?" This question made me aware of something that educators are very reluctant to admit, namely, that to teach means to bring about behavioral change. There is no doubt about it, if we expect students to demonstrate an accomplishment at the end of our course that they cannot exhibit at the beginning, we are expecting a change in their behavior.

When I asked "What effect am I having on student behavior?" the only valid answer I could settle on was "I am making them more effective manipulators of the data of U.S. history." And when I asked the next logical question, "To what end am I making them more effective manipulators of the data of U.S. history?" I was aghast to discover that the only honest answer was the most obvious one, "In order that they might pass my final exam."

It was at this point that I realized how dehumanizing the present educational system tends to be. (I feel safe in generalizing my inadequate methods to our educational system as a whole since it was from that system that I derived my model of what education is supposedly all about.)

I vowed I would cease to treat my students as i they were data storage banks, and begin treatin them as if they were capable of learning the wa people do. This is heresy, indeed, because ou

Kendall College faculty and students informally discuss dialogue education with socio-economist Robert Theobald.

present methods assume that students do *not* learn the way people do. We confront them with large quantities of data which they must somehow (with little, if any, help from us) relate to their experience. But when they leave the classroom and start learning like people, they find themselves confronted by experience, from which they generate their own data or they seek the pertinent human and material source of information on their own. Experience-centered learning is the norm in all aspects of life except formal education. Experience is the only source from which people readily learn.

Our present teaching methods assume (whether *we* do or not) that the ingurgitation of our data provides students with the experience represented thereby. But what the students really experience is our methods, not the data. For instance, when the students are *told* in the classroom what democracy means, they may become adept at manipulating the terminology of democratic theory. But when they *experience* in the classroom what democracy means, they may become equally adept at behaving democratically. The fact that so many dissatisfied young people's movements these days turn to authoritarian tactics and strategies in their attempts to bring about a more democratic society bears this out dramatically. The authoritarian medium of their educational experience is the message students get from us, more than its democratic content.

Our educational system *forces* behavioral change, and thus communicates the very significant message that force is the basic implement of our democracy. We fail our students when they can't do what we say (i.e., say it back to us). And then we condemn them when they demonstrate that they have very effectively learned to do as we do. We have been calling this damned-if-you-don't-damned-if-you-do process "education." No wonder students drop out of it. Having learned that they are damned, why should they stick around while we rub it in?

Subservience to data is inexcusable in the age of Marshall McLuhan. As unclear as McLuhan is about many things, about one thing he is unmistakably clear: the *form* of communication conditions behavior more thoroughly than the content of communication. As behavioral change agents, we educators must make the most of this insight. We must define the changes we wish to effect and design learning environments (i.e., *forms* of communication) which are most conducive to conditioning these behavioral objectives.

I know that this sounds very manipulative, and it is our contempt for human manipulation which keeps us from admitting that we are behavioral change agents. But let's be honest with ourselves—our present procedures employ us in gross manipulation of human beings. We should be manipulating the environment, not individuals. Indirectly, of course, we manipulate individuals when we manipulate their environment, but by nature man is an environment-manipulating animal. Unless we forsake all technology whatsoever, *we haven't the choice not to manipulate.* We either manipulate people directly by some application of force, or indirectly via a process of environmental design. Our task is to design learning environments with primarily human specifications which, while conditioning valid behavioral objectives, do not thwart personal development.

Three behaviors which all students need to develop are (1) the ability to perceive intellectual relationships, (2) the ability to establish human relationships, and (3) the ability to affirm themselves as competent human beings. There are educational forms conducive to the conditioning of each of these behaviors.

Confronting Data

1. To condition the perception of intellectual relationships, we must structure our curricular formats so that data is confronted in the classroom as it is in real life; in wholes rather than parts. This need may be illustrated by reference to a rather common experience in today's society. When the first Negro moves into an all-white neighborhood, the citizens of the community are faced with a race problem. How has our educational system prepared the citizen to face this problem? Chances are he got one version of the problem in economics, another version in sociology, another version in psychology, and perhaps still another version in biology. But when he finally faces the problem in real life it does not confront him as an economic problem, as a psychological problem, as a sociological problem, or as a biological problem. It confronts him as a *race* problem, which consists of all the above dimensions woven together along with some other dimensions that nobody told him about. Unless he has become adept at dealing with complex wholes—an accomplishment all the less likely because it would have to come *in spite of his education*—he is ill prepared to confront the situation.

We must, then, in restructuring our curriculum, identify those life-situations and life-issues which we are preparing our students to face and then confront these situations in the curriculum as they are confronted in real life—in their totality.

Kendall College moved in this direction some six years ago, with the introduction of what we call "topics courses." A topics course focuses on a topic, issue, or problem of current as well as historical relevance, such as revolution, totalitarianism, loyalty, violence, poverty, creativity, race, ecology, communication, world views, urbanization, the social implications of modern technology, etc. Hopefully in twenty-five years most liberal arts courses beneath the graduate level will bear titles such as these, since the examination of issues, problems, and processes is much more productive of general understanding than the examination of disciplines.

Introduce Dialogue

2. To condition the establishment of human relationships, we must introduce dialogue into the learning situation.* Only in dialogue with our students can we really determine their needs and wants. Continuous or even frequent lecturing does not meet our students' needs because it assumes in our students a nonexistent uniformity of preparedness for, receptivity to, and digestibility of our data. Of course none of *us* makes such an assumption about his students, but this merely underlines the absurdity of our perpetuating a *procedure* which makes this assumption.

Converting from monologue to dialogue consists of placing the ultimate responsibility for education where it truly belongs, in the hands of the learners themselves. We all know that it is both grammatically and factually incorrect to say that we "learn" something to somebody. Yet our present method of presenting students with prepackaged, predigested, and (for all practical purposes) prelearned information is but another absurdity that we perpetuate in total violation of our own common sense.

These absurdities accomplish only one basic objective, and that is control. We are uncomfortable in a classroom with our students when we are not in control. Yet the price we pay for the control provided by our present classroom procedures is tremendous. Our students only cram for exams. We have to cram for every class, unless we are content to repeat the tired thoughts of last semester's lecture notes. The first option is only a little less mechanical than the second, and we suffer the same dehumanizing effects of our desire for control that our students do.

When we cease our monologue to the students, and *join them* in dialogue an interesting thing happens. Everybody becomes a teacher as well as a learner, because he gains a clearer idea of the point at which everyone else has arrived and thus discovers what data he most needs to know and to relate. Needless to say, the competent teacher is still ahead of his students in the possession of data. But if he allows the dialogue process to work out its own dynamic, he is likely to experience the pleasure of having the data sought out by his students. The teacher's major reward is, however, leaving the classroom with more ideas than he had when he entered.

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* For an excellent discussion of dialogue education, see Richard Kean, ed. *Dialogue on Education.* Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1967; especially the editor's own article, "Education through Dialogue: A Revolutionary Imperative."

The dialogue dynamic being essentially democratic, this form of education makes it possible for students to *experience* democratic procedures, and learn the values of our society by practicing them rather than hearing them. They also learn to relate to fellow human beings, rather than merely learn *about* relating to fellow human beings.

The potential values of democratizing the classroom and placing responsibility for learning in the hands of students has been demonstrated in our freshman English course. Some of our English faculty have decided to allow their students to choose both the form and the subject matter of their compositions, as well as the length and frequency of submission. Given such freedom, many students exhibited dramatic improvement in the quality of their writing. But one day one of the instructors decided to experiment with a return to the old system, and assigned a common theme to the entire class, to be due at a specific time. The formerly D-level English students who had been writing B-level compositions under the new learning design reverted to D-level performance. And they did not do so out of vengeance.

We think we understand what happened. It is generally known that when people feel threatened, they do not express themselves as competently as they might. It is also generally known (at least among students) that of all the threats we faculty throw at them, the greatest one is English. Nowhere are students made to feel as inferior and incompetent as in English classrooms, whatever the level of instruction. English education is so structured as to enable us to see how many mistakes we can catch our students making, and one thing students learn better than anything else is that they make mistakes. They write in constant fear of making mistakes. Once again, the form of communication conditions behavior more thoroughly than the content. We present them with the information they need in order to write correctly, but they learn that we lie in wait for their errors. True to form, they produce what we are really looking for. But remove the threat, give them freedom of expression, and reward what is right rather than (or at least as well as) condemn what is wrong, and you are likely to find a competent human being.

Design Learning Experiences

3. To condition self-affirmation in our students, we must design learning experiences which make them aware of their present potentials for personal competence and success. Such learning experiences are desperately needed in an educational system which tends to make students feel that competence will be theirs only upon some future accomplishment (i.e., graduation). One such learning experience is being designed at Kendall College, under the direction of Billy B. Sharp, executive director of the W. Clement and Jesse V. Stone Foundation of Chicago. A combination of techniques, known as Achievement Motivation Systems, has been incorporated into what we call the Human Potential Seminar.

The Human Potential Seminar proceeds on the assumption that something is right with the participants, whereas traditional group counseling proceeds on the assumption that something is wrong with the participants. The achievement motivation process consists of individual revelation and group reinforcement of the personal strengths, resources, potentials, values, and success experiences of each seminar participant. The results of this process are increased student motivation and affirmation of self-worth. One measure of the effectiveness of the process: 69 per cent of those students who participated in the seminars last semester raised their academic performance by an average of one grade point.

Imagine What Will Happen

We are currently conducting a series of these seminars which will involve most if not all (enrollment is voluntary) of the college's administration, faculty, and staff. Seminars are also being conducted for the counseling and teaching staffs of elementary and high schools in the area, and will eventually be carried into the local churches. There soon will be established a national center to which persons can come for the requisite training to carry the achievement motivation process back to their own institutions and communities.

I became convinced that students are a lot like people before my participation in a Human Potential Seminar. But now, as I conduct these seminars for students, I begin to realize the fantastic implications of this heresy. If our nation has come so far with an educational system designed to meet nonhuman specifications, imagine what will happen when the system becomes humanized.

PROFITING FROM ACTIVISM

Merritt College Lives in the Midst Of Student Activism—but the Administration Believes in Broad Policies with Few Rules

By Edward H. Redford

Probably this article should never be written. Not only because it has nothing startling to report, but also because even before it is completed the situation it discusses may be completely altered—and perhaps, even because the article itself, if ever read locally, may be the push to disturb a very delicate balance that is under almost constant threat.

Merritt College is an institution where students talk the loudest and longest, take the most far-out positions, demand the most in the way of freedom of speech and action, involve themselves the most directly in affairs of the community and of the nation and world at large, demonstrate the first and the most interminably (and we sometimes think that their hair is the longest and their bare feet the dirtiest, that more of them must appear before the courts for participation in a variety of activities which they think of as related to the "civil rights struggle," that more of them go armed, that more of the men refuse to take off their hats in the buildings, and that more of the women wear pants or ugly black stockings with miniskirts). Most days, we boast about our students and their involvement, intellectual and active, in affairs of importance and look with some disdain on what we like to think is the somewhat sterile educational environment elsewhere; and we like to say that never do we have a dull moment. Sometimes, however, we must admit, we are inclined to think that not knowing what will happen next is just a little nerve-racking.

Although catastrophe may have caught us even later today or some other time before this has been published, perhaps there still will be some interest in our telling how we live at Merritt.

First, however, we should tell you a few things about Merritt, for the way we operate is dependent as much on the nature of the college and its community as on the philosophy which makes possible and encourages the atmosphere in which these conditions flourish.

Merritt is one of the Peralta Colleges (there are two now and soon there will be four) which serve the six cities of northern Alameda County, including Oakland and Berkeley—these two cities are the ones which furnish the largest numbers of our students and which most condition the environment of our college. The Merritt campus is in reality an old high school plant (built to house 1,200 students in a practice school for the training of teachers by the University of California) plus 100 or more portables and other temporary structures scattered throughout Oakland and Berkeley in twenty or more locations. The college enrolls in this perhaps most inadequate plant in the State of California 8,500 students in regular college classes extending from 7:30 a.m. to 10:00 p.m. and during at least the morning and evening hours completely exhausting the capacity of all space, much of it never planned for instructional use.

The plant is located in a part of Oakland which has become rather largely inhabited by Negroes. Many of the buildings in the immediate neighborhood have been demolished to make way for the new overhead structure that will carry the Bay Area Rapid Transit trains through West Oakland. Not only have homes been lost, but of particular significance to Merritt is the fact that neighborhood stores, lunch counters, pool halls, club rooms are all gone. This means that the only loafing place in our immediate area is the Merritt Campus; and so we find at any one time—leaning against a wall, haranguing in the cafeteria, or ogling the girls—perhaps 100 to 150 nonstudents. (We sometimes wonder if we shouldn't have a dean of nonstudents or even a nonstudent center; we do have nonstudent organizations and a nonstudent newspaper.)

Just a couple of doors from the Merritt Campus is the headquarters of the Black Panther Party for Self-Defense (the semimilitary organization which recently invaded the California Legislature, armed to protest pending legislation). Many of its leaders are former Merritt (and University of California) students, and they frequently spend much of their time at Merritt—as individuals and sometimes as a unit (a California law just enacted makes it illegal for anyone to wear a loaded gun on a school's grounds).

Merritt, although located in Oakland, is within easy walking distance of the University of California, and not only do many students enroll simultaneously at U.C. and Merritt or transfer back and forth between the two, but also the Sather Gate protestors spill over to (or from) the front steps of Merritt's one main building. The student or nonstudent penned in a kiosk at U.C. for two days by the police is sure to visit the Merritt Campus immediately after making bail—or perhaps he warmed up for the U.C. demonstration by first picketing the campus store at Merritt. In fact, many of the protest activities at Merritt are financed by funds from U.C. or raised for U.C. Merritt and U.C. protestors share the same "pads" or live in the same parks. The U.C. student who floats off the rooftops on the wings of LSD may well have been sharing a room with someone from Merritt.

Perhaps one should add at this point that not only students but also many of our faculty like to think of themselves as working in the shadow of the Campanile. Frequently faculty members model their behavior after the university faculty senate's independence, aggressiveness, and sometimes truculence in dealing with citizens, students, trustees, and administrators. As a group the Merritt faculty, including administrators, is very liberal in philosophy and particularly anxious to prove it. And one must hasten to add that at Merritt we have sought to select the kind of instructor who is concerned about the world and about its problems, the creative, the dedicated, the nonconformist, the driver. And we have been proud of the involvement of our staff members in civic and legislative affairs of the local community and of the state of California.

Only a few years ago, there seemed to be no particular concern at Merritt with the fact that less than 10 per cent of our total college popu[illegible]s Negro—and this in a city, or two cities [illegible]hat matter, where the Caucasian children in elementary schools number perhaps only 40 per cent of the total.

Five or six years ago, however, because of its identification with minorities, its desire to serve the needs of its total community, and its belief that the only lasting way in which the lot of the Negro can be improved or in which mutual respect between white and black can be developed is through education, the Merritt faculty began an active campaign to make Negroes welcome and, in fact, to recruit them. At the same time it took steps to insure that its programs would have meaning for them and profit them. It also attempted to help all of its students to an understanding of and appreciation of the Negro, his culture and background, his needs as an important segment of the population, and the contribution he makes to our country.

What was done and how it was done are not particularly germane to the present article; suffice it to say that during this period the percentage of Negroes at Merritt increased from eight or ten to twenty-five per cent.

With this increase came problems, as we expected, for with the group of students seeking to take the first steps toward preparation for a profession or to qualify through one of our one- or two-year technical programs as technicians—seeking to become a part of the white man's America or to move into the established middle class—have come also all the militants, the trained demonstrators, the freedom marchers, the extremists from many and varied organizations. With them, too, have come the Caucasian protestors.

Mood of the Times and Community

As the mood of the times and of the community changed, the liberals or even the radicals of yesterday seem conservative in comparison to the new activists. The leader of the Afro-Americans, who two years ago was arrested for attracting a crowd that blocked traffic in front of Merritt, is now thought of as a traitor by the Muslims or the members of SNCC. To the Black Panthers, the NAACP leaders are "old Toms," and the Black Panther minister of defense, a seventeen-times registered former student at Merritt pictured recently in *The Black Panther* as seated in African grandeur holding a heavy rifle and a spear, writes: "The brothers in East Oakland learned from Watts a means of resistance fighting by arousing the people in the streets, throwing bricks and molotov cocktails to destroy property and create disruption."

And whether problems come from the extremes on one side or the extremes on the other—and each extreme seems to beget the other, at Merritt as well as elsewhere—problems always will exist when the downtrodden are encouraged to raise themselves or even to think for themselves. We can expect that any attempts to change status or even to broaden horizons will not be easy.

Merritt, we might add, has welcomed all minorities and all downtrodden. It has a contingency of American Indians sent from the reservations for vocational training. It has fairly large enrollments of Mexican Americans and Central Americans, and it works actively to maintain a sampling from as many foreign countries as possible. As a California public junior college with no fees and no tuition (except for out-of-state residents), it is the place where the doors are open to the sons and daughters of those who are not a part of the "establishment" (but who either want to join the establishment or to demolish it) and where they can secure the education their future effectiveness requires.

In characterizing the Merritt of today, we should point out, also, the great growth which has come to the faculty of the college—growth in understanding, that is, and in dedication to meeting the needs of students. From the time not much more than six or seven years ago when it more or less apologized for having even 10 per cent of its enrollment black and preferred the image of lower-division status, it has now switched not only its expressed philosophy but also its working efforts to building a school with an enrollment representative of the community population and with courses designed to meet the needs of that population. It has developed courses and parts of courses and is planning entire curriculums which have meaning to the local situation. It has involved itself inextricably in the efforts of the community. It has expanded its occupational majors from the half dozen or so with which it was concerned in its more cloistered days to the more than forty-four that it offers now—with perhaps as large an offering in the whole social service area as can be found in any junior college anywhere (as one might well expect from the orientation of the community and the college itself).

And all of this has been accomplished with an enthusiasm and a spirit of dedication marvelous to behold—although one must admit, if he is totally honest, with much less enthusiasm on the part of students than faculty, for even the student who ostensibly has the least occasion to hope that he will become a professional or a research worker, or perhaps especially that student, is the one who is most sure that he wants to take lower-division transfer work.

One could continue at great length detailing conditions which cause Merritt to be an interesting place in which to enroll or to work—or, according to one's point of view, a complete madhouse and a time bomb.

He could talk about student and faculty identification with all sorts of causes, the equal enthusiasm with which funds are collected to send a delegation to the Model United Nations in New York City or to finance a how-to-avoid-the-draft school.

He could tell about the demonstrations around the table where the Marine Corps is recruiting, or about the table where a faculty group is selling black lapel bars to be worn in mourning for those killed and maimed in Vietnam, or about the table where petitions are being signed to have contraceptives dispensed through the college nurse (who incidentally cannot dispense anything, even aspirin pills).

STOP THE WAR

He might remark about the importance of these tables to all advocates, not only as a location but also as a symbol; these are card tables usually furnished by the associated student organization, to all sorts of campaigns or money-raising efforts or for the distribution of propaganda.

Anarchy or Education?

He might also introduce some of the almost numberless student organizations, perhaps a majority of which are devoted to a cause instead of being tied to a more traditional academic or student activity interest—clubs which come and go, which were important because of the stress of the moment or the drive of an individual, and which wane as those involved move on to bring light to another institution (and sometimes, when things get particularly trying, one is grateful that a junior college suffers a rather frequent turnover of students): clubs devoted to a study of the precepts of a particular church, clubs taking the name of W.E.B. DuBois, clubs devoted to protests about Vietnam, clubs raising money to send to the tomato strikers in the fields of the Southwest, clubs devoted to encouraging sexual freedom, clubs seeking to guarantee the civil rights of hippies, clubs attempting to elect a liberal (or radical, according to one's point of view) slate to the city council of one of the six municipalities which form the Peralta Junior College District, clubs against filling the Bay, clubs seeking to promote the operation of the college store and cafeteria at a loss, and so on and on.

And along with all this, one finds usually that the student newspaper takes an extremely liberal posture, feeling that it acquires status only by criticizing the establishment, whether that establishment be administration, student government, faculty, or American society in general. And one can be certain that the student government administration, whatever it may do, will be considered always wrong by the students themselves.

As one gets to this point in telling what Merritt is, he cannot help but suspect that those who do not know the place already are critically rejecting what must seem to be anarchy. Quite likely, they may well doubt that "education" is possible in such an environment. And we must admit that sometimes a faculty member, an administrator, a student, and especially some parents, cannot take the excitement and find they want to try more peaceful waters. We think, however, that real education is going on at Merritt. Our biggest challenge we feel is to provide for the ultimate of freedom but at the same time to guarantee that it is being used to educate rather than merely to advocate or demonstrate or protest.

We do not argue that this is the only or even the best way to run a college, and probably for another school it might be an entirely undesirable one. At Merritt, we have merely attempted to capitalize on a situation which would have come about despite anything we might have wanted to do otherwise and to make educational profit out of what some might consider a problem condition.

Two Principles

Perhaps the key to our operation is to be found in two characteristics of the college: first, policies with regard to all these matters which bear on freedom and involvement are developed on the basis of the best judgment of faculty, students, and administration; and, secondly, we attempt to have just as few rules as possible.

The basic factor in this business is the Merritt Council, which is composed of the deans and assistant deans, plus an equal number of senators appointed by the president of the Associated Students, with the president of the college presiding. This organization considers all matters of important college policy and receives and considers recommendations from senate, administration, or the Associated Students of Merritt College (A.S.M.C.). Although, technically, it recommends to the president rather than itself making policy, its decisions nearly always do become official college policy, as they should since they represent the best thinking of the total college family. Perhaps the strength of such an organization lies not only in the fact that the governed are making the decisions and so are much more committed to them but also in the fact that here is a pooling of information and judgment which should insure that the decisions made are wise and reasonable.

Here is an example of how the Merritt Council operates: A few years ago, after a series of meetings and discussions and with the assistance of a civil liberties leader in this area, the A.S.M.C. recommended to the Merritt Council a series of regulations for the conduct of a "Hyde Park area" on the campus. Because of our overcrowded conditions and because, in reality, we have nothing but a sidewalk and a few steps here and there that are at all free from classes or heavy traffic, the selection of an area and the time when it is to be available were not as readily determinable as one might think would be the case. The original recommendation, later approved by the Merritt Council and then announced as college policy, called for a certain area to be used from 11:00 a.m. to 12 noon Tuesday and Thursday by college students only. Outside speakers were to be scheduled to speak only to a recognized organization (or to any instructional group, of course) in a room or in the auditorium on a previously planned basis. The Hyde Park area, supposedly, was to be for more or less spontaneous discussions intended for the passerby or which could not have been anticipated long enough in advance—an hour or so—for a room to be provided.

Although there were some of us who doubted that this situation was going to work out as restricted, we agreed to try the new regulations. Everything went well for a while, although the Hyde Park area was used relatively little, until one group schedued an outside speaker, announced a rally, and took over the Hyde Park area. The matter was referred to the Student Judicial Council—another factor in Merritt's system—and action against the offenders was recommended. This situation itself was handled without any problem; but, as a result of this particular case, a proposal arose to amend the Hyde Park rules—and, for the most part, one of our strengths has been the focus on working to get rules changed if they become onerous rather than violating them.

After this proposal was acted on by the A.S.M.C. Council, it came to the Merritt Council, where it was discussed at length, after which a small committee was appointed to draw up a regulation which would cover the situation. This committee held some hearings and then reported to the Merritt Council with a suggested wording for the new regulation. Action then was taken by the council, and now the regulation will be printed in the *Faculty Handbook* and in the *Procedures and Policies Handbook for Student Affairs.*

Reliance on Policy

As was remarked originally, one of the principles upon which Merritt operates is that as few rules as possible will be enacted—for a number of more or less obvious reasons. Principally, however, we avoid making regulations because we feel that school administration too often deteriorates into an enforcement of rules rather than concentrating on creative matters and also because we hate to put two groups in conflict, whatever they may be—in this case, the rule enforcers and the potential rule breakers.

As a matter of fact, the entire section of the *Procedures and Policies Handbook* devoted to "Policies and Procedures Concerning Freedom of Speech, Assembly, and Advocacy" occupies only four and a-half pages, size 5½ by 8¼ inches. Of this space only one-fourth is devoted to procedures (principally referring to locations), and the remainder is occupied with the following statements of policy:

Freedom of speech and assembly and an educated citizenry are the cornerstones of democracy. An educational institution in a society governed according to these principles has special responsibility to educate students so that discussion, assembly, and the curious mind will remain viable instruments of intelligent self-direction in an age of propaganda and fear-inspired mass movements.

The first step in harnessing useful ideas and discarding useless ones is to learn to discriminate between the two sorts. In the domains of current political, economic, social, and philosophical issues—no less than in the study of the whole cultural heritage of man—such discriminations can be made only on the basis of an encounter with the issues through writings, speakers, and discussions. It is the responsibility of an educational institution to meet such issues as they arise in society with the same spirit of free inquiry that is taken for granted in academic studies. Such inquiry entails the analysis of issues, the weighing of evidence, and the recognition of facts and falsehoods as employed by the proponents of any idea or cause. The techniques of intelligent inquiry do not appear miraculously in children or adults; they are learned, rather painstakingly, through practice, instruction, and example. To cultivate them is a special contribution and responsibility of the school to this society. The agents of such instruction are the faculty and administration; the material for instruction encompasses all human problems, historical or current; the medium of presentation is any medium of communication.

For these reasons freedom of speech and assembly will be encouraged at Merritt as the fundamental prerequisite of free inquiry and free discussion. In keeping with these basic American principles, chartered and recognized student organizations are able to bring to the campus a diversity of viewpoints reflecting the variety of opinions to be found in our society as a whole. . . .

Students, within the practical limitations of facilities, should have the same rights and responsibilities of citizenship on campus that they have off campus. Merritt College subscribes to the philosophy that student organizations and individual students should be allowed without prior approval to distribute pamphlets, solicit funds, collect names for petitions, recruit students, and take other lawful action respecting any matter which directly or indirectly concerns or affects them, with the following stipulations:

a. In no way shall the educational program and activity program be interrupted or adversely affected by such activities.

b. Only students currently registered at Merritt College shall be permitted to exercise this policy.

It is true that we do have other "procedures" governing the chartering and operation of student organizations which have some relation to this same subject. Here too, however, the emphasis is on a policy statement rather than on the mechanics of regulation.

The need for one type of rule at Merritt is completely eliminated by the following provision of the *Board Policy Manual* of the Peralta District:

No action will be taken which will interfere with freedom of speech and assembly provided that the exercise of these freedoms is not contrary to State law. No administrator nor faculty member will exercise censorship over student publications.

Perhaps this reliance on general policies rather than on specific rules is another strength in the Merritt system, as we see it. The reliance on policy, it is true, leaves open many situations for intepretation and even for dispute—and encouraging us, incidentally, to build up a series of case situations—but this we think is healthy if we are willing to give the time and trouble to examining the specifics of each problem or question in the light of what we want to accomplish. And, as a matter of fact, rather frequently occasions arise for referral of problems to the Judicial Council or to *ad hoc* committees, always with students involved.

Deliberation Before Crisis

When students proposed to publish an evaluation of teachers and teaching at Merritt, for example, and faculty feeling on the subject was rather well divided, we involved the official college groups, and then we held a series of public meetings; the Faculty Senate considered the matter in great depth; faculty members circulated many, many pages of argument pro and con; and special committees worked for a satisfactory solution. Perhaps two or three months of almost agonizing effort to arrive at an intelligent decision finally resulted in a solution rather satisfactory to all persons.

At one time, we worked for a period of two or three months on the whole problem of advocacy on campus, bringing in outside speakers, using deliberative committees, studying the law carefully, and so on. After several weeks those involved were rather well convinced about what could or could not be done on a junior college campus; and, as a result of dissatisfaction with the legal situation, members of the A.S.M.C. joined with students from one or two neighboring junior colleges to get state legislation enacted which would exclude the junior college from those statutory regulations which apply generally to advocacy in the secondary schools of California.

In contrast we have had sudden problems arise which could be settled within a few days of intensive study and consultation; and in nearly every case we have found a willingness on the part of faculty and students to study a problem before a crisis actually has been reached.

This might be the place to remark that the A.S.M.C. has been increasingly critical of the activities of the state junior college student association and, although retaining its membership in the state organization, has taken leadership in forming a new body of student government leaders interested in involving themselves in more socially and politically significant affairs than in what they think of as administration inspired "Mickey Mouse" activities of the generally rather conservative state association.

The A.S.M.C. itself is an organization with a great amount of autonomy and independence, one which really has the authority to govern itself. Membership in the A.S.M.C. is purely voluntary, as is seldom the case in most of the junior colleges of our area. Thus no more than one-third to two-fifths of the registered full-time students ordinarily belong—although any student enrolled at Merritt is eligible to vote. The A.S.M.C. employs its own business manager and operates both the college store and the cafeteria and vending machines.

Because of its limited financial base, however, the A.S.M.C. must depend on the Peralta District budget for much of the support of activities which it would otherwise finance from membership dues if all students were required to buy the official A.S.M.C. "seal" of membership. Certainly one can justify educationally the expenditure of district funds on student government and activities, since the chief reason for the existence of such activities is their educational value. On the other hand, there is the one weakness in the present scheme, namely, that the furnishing of funds all too often results in the tendency to control.

Being responsible for student activities in a college such as ours is not an easy task. We have an assistant dean of student personnel services and a coordinator of student activities under him, both directly in charge of all student affairs, we have no deans of men or women, no one with even a tinge of disciplinary responsibility. The two administrators directly assigned to student affairs are expected to work creatively and to council in their area of responsibility. Of course, the time occasionally comes when they have to say no or when they must insist on the orderly following of procedures, but primarily their work is to encourage and to anticipate, to be available and to be used. If the Student Council decides to continue with the tradition of an awards dinner-dance, the student affairs administrators have all sorts of resources to offer for help with the planning, and they are careful to clarify what is expected of those in charge, the limitations of the A.S.M.C. budget, the no-drinking regulation, and so on. They do not put on the affair, however; if it is held, it is given by the students themselves.

This is the picture at Merritt, and although we sometimes ask ourselves whether we are resorting to rationalization, we feel that this is the kind of environment which is best suited to the provision of opportunity for a meaningful education.

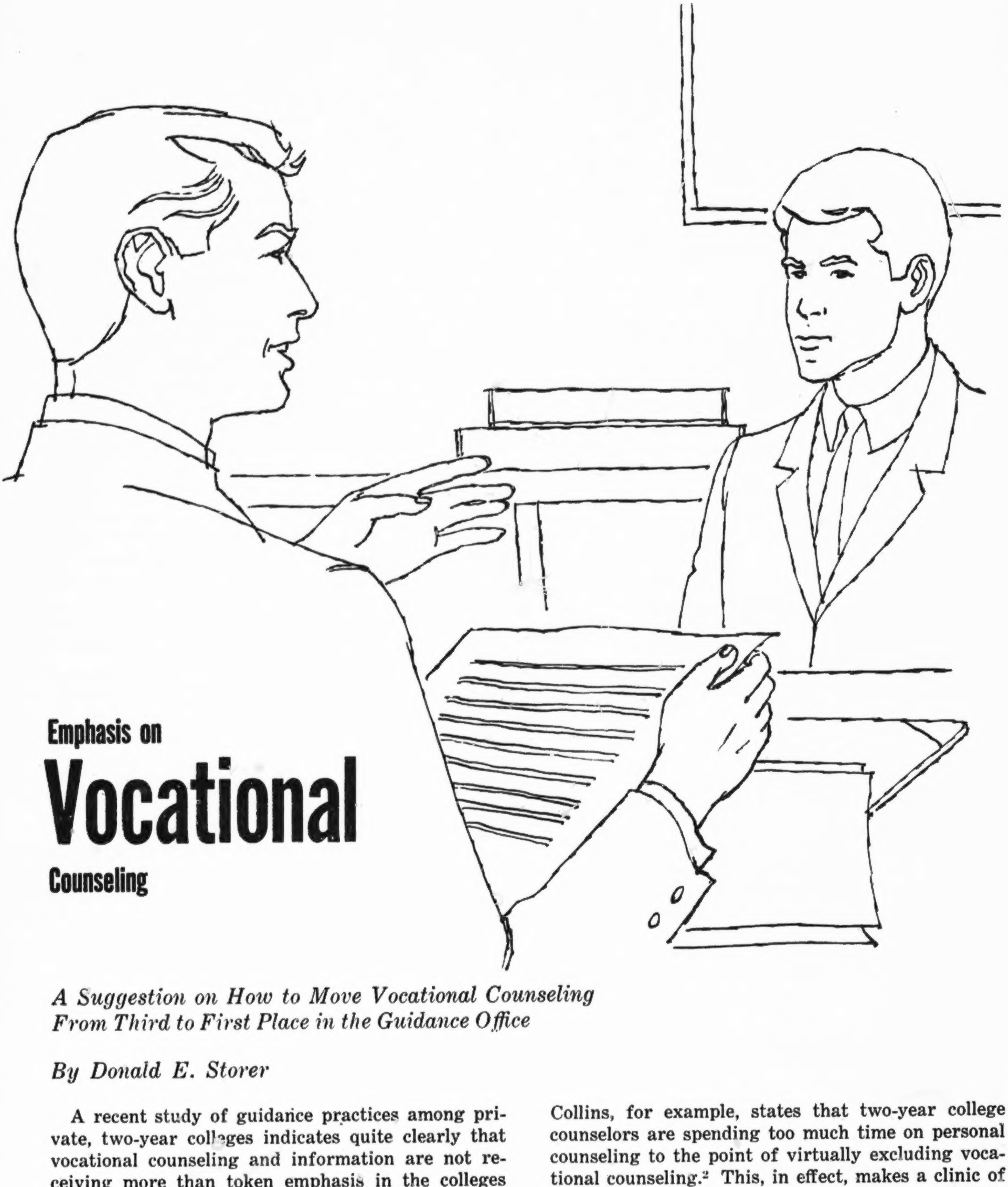
It's a demanding life that we faculty members at Merritt have to live, with few lines drawn to indicate exactly what is permitted and what is forbidden. But also, we don't play games with the student who dares, or even is almost compelled, to put his foot over the line. Our method takes untold hours of time and evokes much noise, but we think that it provides the learning atmosphere we want.

And, incidentally, we might remark that with potentially the most explosive situation one could imagine, all of us at Merritt have managed to avoid the major outbursts which have taken place at many neighboring and other colleges—because, we believe, whenever a problem arises all of us join in attempting a solution. Oh, of course we will have TV cameramen showing up once or twice a year to picture a planned demonstration by a small number of students and outsiders that lasts for half an hour or so in front of the college; and we will have a "censuring" of a college official by the A.S.M.C. Council; or the Lavender Light and Power, an aspiring student organization, will suggest that the president resign since it suspects he might not be sympathetic to the civil rights of hippies.

Being Educable at the Top

A school administrator anywhere quite frequently finds that he must be ready always to change from the spur to the brake and then back again according to the speed at which his institution is moving. Probably he finds more pleasure in being out ahead of his college, pulling all into greater interest, than he does in having to caution and sometimes check the speed of change. But there is a lot of satisfaction to be gained by one who is associated with a school where enthusiasm and exuberance carry everyone forward—even if sometimes he must slow down what seems to be a suicide pace and recall everyone to reality.

Life for an administrator at Merritt isn't an easy one, but administrators too should be educable and they too must grow—and continue growing—if they are to last in this sort of environment. Of course, they must learn flexibility and humility and how to live with uncertainty. They must learn to take advice and to depend on the judgment of others. They must learn to back down gracefully, and to admit it if they find they have taken a position in error. They must above all—and perhaps this is the hardest—develop a feeling for the exact (and only occasional) time when a matter really is one of principle which requires a firm yes or no. It's a hard life, and from day to day one cannot be certain that he will be able to grow enough to deserve to be an administrator at Merritt.



Emphasis on Vocational Counseling

A Suggestion on How to Move Vocational Counseling From Third to First Place in the Guidance Office

By Donald E. Storer

A recent study of guidance practices among private, two-year colleges indicates quite clearly that vocational counseling and information are not receiving more than token emphasis in the colleges surveyed.[1] Only about 5 per cent of the colleges in the survey give primary attention to vocational counseling over personal-social counseling.

Similar findings regarding the paucity of vocational counseling available in two-year colleges have been discussed in other recent writings. Charles E. Collins, for example, states that two-year college counselors are spending too much time on personal counseling to the point of virtually excluding vocational counseling.[2] This, in effect, makes a clinic of the two-year college guidance office which should be focusing on the developmental problems of the majority of students (vocational and educational problems, primarily) rather than the personal or emotional problems of a few students.

Writing in more general terms, Max R. Raines points out that counseling and guidance functions of student personnel work are inadequately provided in more than half of the two-year colleges included in a comprehensive survey of junior college student personnel programs. Raines also affirms that one means of improving the situation is to provide adequate methods for analysis, preparation, and distribution of career information.[3]

More of the need for vocational counseling is pointed up by the Student Personnel Commission of the American Association of Junior Colleges in its publication *Guidelines for Research.* Among essential practices mentioned for two-year college guidance programs are:

1. Helping students make appropriate educational and vocational plans.
2. Helping students select and transfer to the next destination.
3. Helping students choose best levels in courses.[4]

These practices can probably best be implemented through more emphasis on vocational counseling and information.

Vocational Counseling Is Needed

Then, too, we must acknowledge the fact that a large percentage of today's two-year college students are in college simply because of cultural pressure or because they cannot find satisfactory employment after high school. They, therefore, do not have a realistic picture of the world of work.[5] In the realm of vocational choice the students may have fanciful choices dictated by status values rather than interests and abilities. This is seen in that a high percentage of them say that they want to enter professions and business at the managerial level.[6]

The problem is clear: vocational counseling is sorely needed in two-year colleges! But what can these colleges do to meet the need for vocational information and counseling? We, at Wesley College in Dover, Delaware, have found at least the beginning of an answer to this question. Part of this answer lies in a career conference co-sponsored by the guidance department and the Wesley College Alumni Association. (Let us acknowledge at the outset, however, that conferences such as this and all other similar devices are not meant to *substitute* for vocational counseling—the student discussing his interests, abilities, hopes, and dreams with a qualified counselor.)

Once a year, certain outstanding alumni of the college, who have gone on to success in various fields of endeavor, are invited to return to the campus to share information about their careers with current students. Fields represented are chosen from the expressed major interests of the student body and this year included: business administration, elementary teaching, secondary teaching, engineering, and secretarial sciences.

About 65 per cent of Wesley's graduates go on to four-year colleges; thus, the emphasis on careers which require four years of college study. Fields discussed, of course, will vary from year to year, depending upon the interests of students as revealed in a polling of the student body; the program is then geared to meet the expressed needs of the students.

Alumni speakers are used for two primary reasons: (1) Current students can more readily identify themselves with graduates of their own institution; material presented is more meaningful than information given by graduates of other institutions, and (2) alumni themselves become more involved with the college when they return to see new curriculums, new buildings, more students. Typical alumni reactions to the program this year were:

"This is a tremendous thing—if only we had had this when I was in college!"

"Count on me anytime to return for a Career Conference!"

"The students asked good questions and really seemed interested. Talking with them was exciting!"

The two-year college has an acknowledged problem of keeping alumni interested since many of them feel divided loyalties; they are often graduates of two institutions, and the four-year institution has a more active alumni program which tends to build loyalty for the senior college and take it away from the two-year college. Here, then, is a means of involving or re-involving alumni for two-year colleges. Both students and the college profit from the use of alumni speakers in the Career Conference.

Faculty Involvement

But faculty involvement in a career conference program is also vital, perhaps even more important than alumni involvement. Faculty members are in a position either to assure the success of the program or guarantee its failure through their daily contacts and influence with students. The Wesley College faculty was involved in the planning for this year's career conference at a faculty workshop last June. Faculty members were thoroughly informed regarding the purposes and mechanics of the conference and were urged to submit suggestions and lend support to the program. This technique worked well, for faculty members freely offered suggestions and otherwise helped with the conference, especially through suggesting names of alumni speakers. In fact, the opening session of the conference this year was a faculty-alumni dinner (held in lieu of a faculty meeting) at which faculty members talked informally with graduates employed in areas of faculty members' interests. This type of give-and-take is a live, follow-up study in itself, and several faculty members expressed appreciation for the opportunity of discovering some new facts about occupations in their fields of specialization.

After the faculty-alumni dinner, a student assembly was held in the college gymnasium. The program consisted of a half-hour presentation by a graduate of the college who is now employed as an executive placement manager with a private employment center in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Entitling his talk, "Choosing a Career," the speaker gave specific facts about career choice and discussed his experiences in helping young people find suitable positions. Such items of interest as employment interview techniques and average salaries for recent graduates thoroughly captured the interest and attention of the students. And, significantly, many of the faculty members willingly attended this opening session!

Student Reaction

Immediately following the assembly, the group dispersed to the main classroom building where alumni speakers held forth for two identical one-hour sessions. If the students desired to attend more than one conference, they were able to do so. The speakers had been thoroughly briefed by mail on the kinds of questions to expect and, in fact, were given a rather broad outline of questions to use as a basis for starting the sessions. They were encouraged to use discussion rather than lecture techniques for presentations, and students report that they did this . . . and effectively, too, at least in terms of student reactions!

Students' comments about the career conference were highly encouraging:

"A wonderful program."

"They [the speakers] really made me think about the demands of the job." (This from a prospective teacher.)

"Now I want to see you [the counselor] to explore some ideas further."

The career conference technique apparently stimulated students to further thought concerning their careers; this achievement alone makes the program worthwhile, but the faculty and alumni involvement and interest were valuable concomitants of this conference.

So a career conference utilizing faculty and alumni effectively involves members of these groups both in the work of the college outside the classroom and in the vocational planning done by current students. More significantly, it stimulates students to seek further counseling and information concerning their vocational choices and helps them along the path to greater self-knowledge. And this must certainly be one of the goals of any educational institution!

With the motivation for seeking information thus established, the college must provide resources for the students to turn to for answers to their questions about vocations: a trained counselor, with *time* to see individuals, interested and knowledgeable in the area of vocational counseling; a vocational-interest testing program; and a college-level library of occupational information.

Time for the Majority

But, foremost among these things, the college must provide the *time* for the counselor to discuss with students results of tests, tentative career choices, appropriate next steps in the educational plan, and other related factors. The counselor must fulfill his obligation in seeing that the time provided is used to meet the needs of students—not just the relatively small number with severe adjustment or emotional problems—but the majority of students who desperately need basic vocational information and counseling in order to plan for optimal use of their talents and abilities.

Certainly, if more of our two-year colleges provide these resources, vocational counseling will move to first rather than third emphasis in two-year college counseling programs, and a much-discussed and acknowledged need among two-year college students will be more adequately met.

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[1] Storer, Donald E. *Current Guidance Practices in Private Two-Year Colleges.* Unpublished master's thesis: The Ohio State University, 1965.

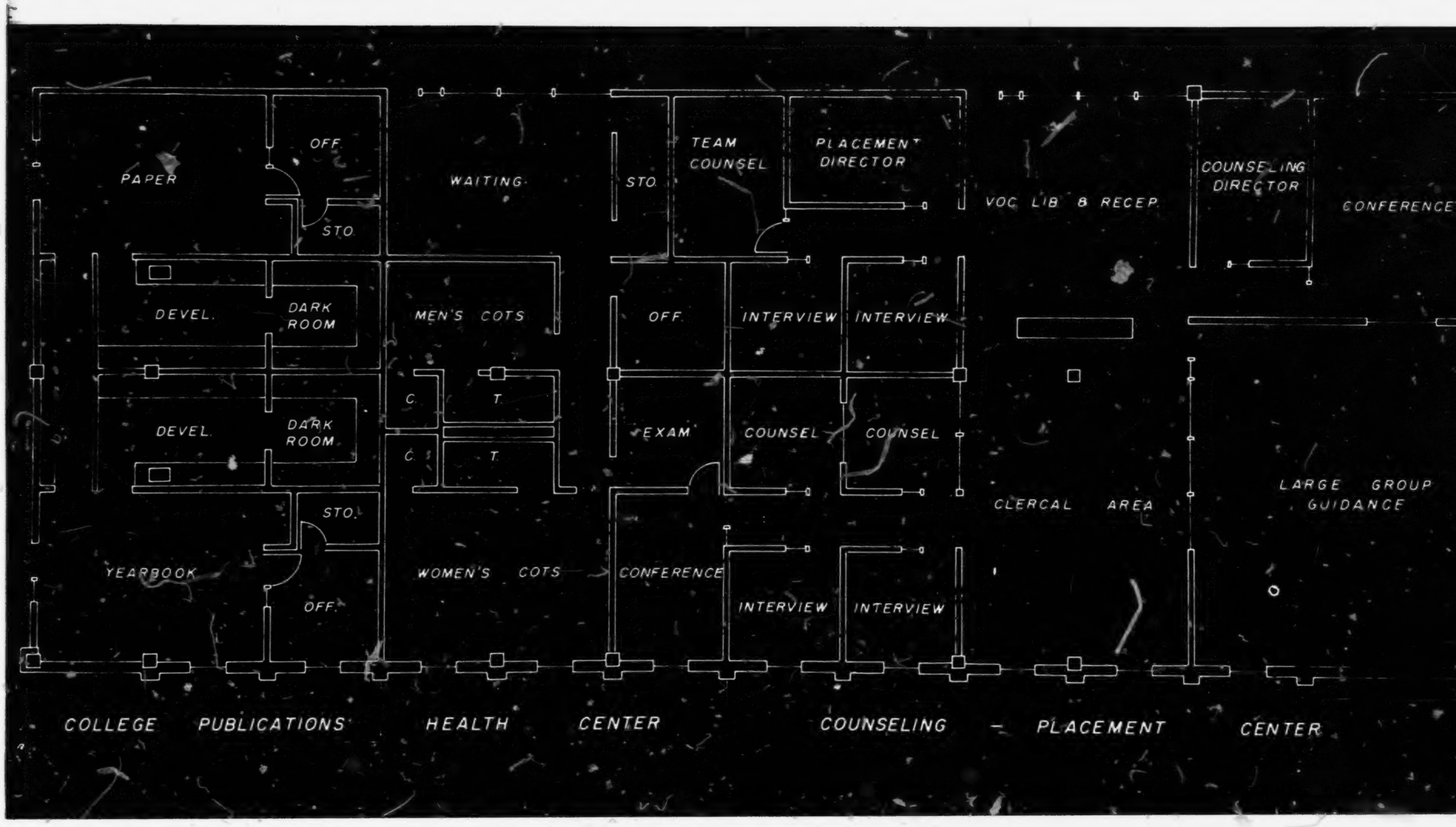
[2] Collins, Charles E. "Junior College Counseling: A Critical View." *The Personnel and Guidance Journal.* pp. 546-550. February 1965.

[3] Raines, Max R. "The Student Personnel Situation." *Junior College Journal.* pp. 6-8. February 1966.

[4] *Guidelines for Research.* Washington, D.C.: The American Association of Junior Colleges, 1964, p. 30.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. 69.

[6] McDaniel, J. W. *Essential Student Personnel Practices for Junior Colleges.* Washington, D.C.: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1962, p. 9.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COLLEGE PUBLICATIONS
HEALTH CENTER
COUNSELING - PLACEMENT CENTER

The Counseling Approach at Harper College

William Rainey Harper College in Illinois Will Open This Fall; Here Is How Its Professional-Decentralized Counseling Program Will Work

By James Harvey

William Rainey Harper College is a new comprehensive community college located in the northwest suburbs of Chicago. The district borders on O'Hare Field and is in a rapidly growing suburban area with a current district population of over 200,000. The college will open this fall with a full-time equated enrollment of 1,100. This is projected to increase to an enrollment of 9,000 (F.T.E.) by 1980.

The counseling program of Harper College employs a professional-decentralized approach. It has a professional approach in that the college is committed to using professionally trained counselors to handle its programs of academic advising, counseling, and orientation. It has a decentralized approach in that counselors will be assigned to the various divisions of the college and they will be officed in the divisional headquarters which are spread throughout the college in close proximity to the classrooms and faculty offices used by each division.

The Elements and Rationale

Some of the elements of the Harper College program and their rationale are:

1. *Professionally trained counselors will be hired on a 300:1 ratio.* A careful study of the counseling process at the community college level and current ratios being used at the secondary and higher education levels indicate that a student to counselor ratio of 300:1 is reasonable. This ratio helps to provide counselors with the opportunity to do the in-depth counseling needed by some of their counselees.

2. *The counselors will do the academic advising.* In the Harper College situation professional counselors will be the academic advisors. There are several reasons for this approach. Students will be going to a wide diversity of four-year institutions and the academic advising for these students will be quite complex. The average faculty member has neither time, interest nor opportunity to become an expert in the ever-changing curricular requirements of many institutions of higher education. The college is, in effect, in basic agreement with James Thornton, Jr., who says in his book on the community college, "While faculty members sometimes feel they could very successfully assign students to the proper courses, experience shows that this procedure is usually not effective."[1]

Unless the academic advising is first class the student is "shortchanged" and the economic advantage of attending a junior college is soon lost. If programing errors are made, transfer students may be required to spend an additional summer or semester in college thereby negating all or part of the economic benefits. Career students may have to delay entry into the vocational world, take extra courses and make substantial financial sacrifices also. Using professionally prepared counselors as advisers should avoid most of the problems.

In addition the advising contact will provide counselors with a normal, relaxed contact with students. Students will be more likely to come to the counselor for help on problems requiring counseling if rapport has already been established as a result of the advising relationship.

Using counselors as advisers also puts them in a position to inventory the student's vocational educational choices and, to an extent, his mental health. The college is thereby in a better position to recognize those students who need aid than if the student sees only faculty members who may not have the preparation and insight of the professional counselor.

Last, students undecided as to vocational choice will likely obtain a more insightful and professional handling of their problems from a counselor than they would from a faculty member whose tendency is to overvalue his field and experience. Often, well-meaning faculty members try to persuade students to follow their pathway (usually because they know it best and have succeeded in it), whereas the student should be exploring other avenues as well.

3. *Counselors will be assigned to a division of the college and will specialize in advising majors in that division.* By specializing, counselors can develop a greater accuracy in academic advising. As they specialize in the majors in one department they can also study these particular curriculums in the four-year institutions and do a better job of giving the student correct information. The counselor will be able to work more closely with particular members of the faculty, identify closely with them and thereby break down some of the traditional counselor-teacher barriers that often arise. These barriers frequently hinder maximum staff effort in behalf of the students.

4. *Each counselor will (in addition to the specialized majors) be assigned a group of undecided students and a group of developmental students.*[2] Much of the counseling load is anticipated to be with the undecided and developmental students. By distributing these students among all counselors, counseling loads will be spread more evenly. The students who have selected a major and are proceeding normally toward a realistic goal would not need much if any attention from the counselor. The basic objective is to help those students who need help without interfering with the well-adjusted student who is progressing normally.

5. *The counseling function will be decentralized and counselors will be officed in divisional suites throughout the college.* Housing the counselors in divisional headquarters which are near the classrooms and in the student traffic pattern will make dropping into a counselor's office both easy and natural. Not only are counselors officed near the students but they are also located in an area

Roy Sedrel (standing), director of data processing at William Rainey Harper College in Illinois, discusses some procedures with Don Stansbury, director of admissions and registrar. The college is in the northwest Chicago suburbs.

where there is much student traffic in the normal course of college business. Often, when counselors are housed in a counseling center, a stigma is attached to a student who goes there. Other students sometimes consider them abnormal or at least to have a serious problem which connotes weakness. The decentralized approach also avoids isolating the counseling function and helps break down the teacher-counselor barriers by putting the counselors in natural contact with faculty.

6. *The counselors will be used in the college orientation program.* Counselors will have basic responsibility for orientation of their counselees to college. This program will be informal. It will begin during the month of August prior to the admission of the students, and it will continue throughout the first year at the college. The counselor will be responsible for studying the needs of his counselees and for providing seminar sessions, audio-visual materials, books and pamphlets, individual counseling sessions, and any other methods or materials needed to meet the needs of his students in adjusting to college.

7. *Most academic advising will be done during the summer.* The academic advising of new and returning students will be done during the month of August. Counselors will then be free to focus on their counseling and orientation responsibilities during the regular academic year. All students both new and returning will meet their counselors in August to have their academic advising completed. The counselor at this time can work out each student's program for the ensuing year. Unless problems develop, counselors will not have to spend a great deal of time during the college year in this process.

8. *Good mental hygiene will be stressed and serious problems will be referred.* Harper College will assume the same responsibilities in the area of mental health that it does in the area of physical health. This responsibility includes the promotion of healthful living and the assessment of health problems.

Counselors will work individually and in groups with students on mental hygiene. They will also be alert to possible mental illness among their counselees. When mental abnormalities are uncovered parents will be notified and recommendations for referral will be made. The college counselors will not engage in long-term therapy with students. The college will, however, retain a psychiatrist or clinical psychologist as consultant to the staff in the assessment of abnormalities and to aid in the in-service program for counselors.

9. *The college will develop a counseling-placement center.* With the counseling staff housed throughout the college, the counseling center will serve as a center of professional stimulation, a testing center, and as a place where group counseling can be carried out. The counseling center has been developed so that the counseling staff can be brought together often for in-service training programs, for case conferences, for research and for other professional activities. Counseling offices and group counseling rooms have been developed with two-way vision windows and sound hook-ups for observation of counseling in progress. A counseling room has also been developed which will be furnished with lounge-type furniture for use in team counseling and experimentation in new counseling approaches.

The college has coupled the placement function with the counseling center because they can thereby share the college vocational library located there and because the placement center will encourage a natural flow of students to the facility for aid in job placement and financial aid information. The latter fact will help eliminate the stigma mentioned in point five and make it easier for students to go to the center for testing and counseling when necessary.

10. *The college will use visual terminals and a computer in the counseling process.* The college is planning to facilitate the counseling program by installing visual terminals in the counseling center and in each divisional headquarters. These terminals will be tied into a central computer on which is stored a vast amount of data. These data will include the complete student record, four-year college graduation requirements, test norms, expectancy tables, demographic data on different student populations and, in fact, any data of aid to the counselor that can be programed into the computer. Through these terminals, counselors will have access to this wealth of information arranged to aid them in counseling the student. Furthermore, predictive formulas residing in the computer can be tapped to help assess the student's chances of success in a variety of situations. This new tool will significantly aid the counselor in clarifying the alternatives for the counselee so that his decision making is made easier.

Worth the Expenditure

Some may say that the program presented here is too costly. In reply, there are two basic points that need to be made:

First, if one carefully analyzes the cost of other approaches and includes, for example, the expense of giving faculty advisers released time for in-service programs, visiting colleges, and for advising, (all needed if the job is to be done right) then the cost differential shrinks considerably.

Secondly, though money can be saved initially by using other alternatives, the cost in the long run may be far greater to the students, the college and society. If a college saves some funds but obtains a lower quality of advising and counseling (which is the writer's contention) then the student who is misprogramed may pay for it by spending an extra summer, semester, or longer in college. The cost to him in lost wages and in additional college expenses is substantial. The college also pays a price when it has students in inappropriate courses and programs. This kind of educational waste needs to be eliminated. If a student obtains poor counseling and fails to find a vocation where his abilities are maximally used, then he and society both pay a substantial price. In other words a weak counseling program may well mean a college is "penny-wise and pound-foolish."

In summary then, the writer believes that, while the program discussed may cost a bit more, the gain in the quality of the advising, orientation and counseling program is more than worth the additional expenditure of funds.

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[1] Thornton, James W. Jr. *The Community Junior College*, Second Edition. New York, New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966. p. 39.

[2] Students in the lower 10 per cent of their high school class who are taking a remedial program prior to admission to one of the college level programs.

DEVELOPING JUNIOR COLLEGES

A NEWSLETTER PUBLISHED
BY THE AAJC PROGRAM
WITH DEVELOPING INSTITUTIONS

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES/1315 SIXTEENTH STREET, N.W./WASHINGTON, D.C. 20036/TELEPHONE: (202) 462-4031
PROJECT OFFICE: 1225 Connecticut Ave., N.W., #304, Washington, D.C. 20036

No. 21 November 22, 1968

JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENT CHARACTERISTICS

by Dorothy M. Knoell, AAJC Urban Community College Project
(Excerpts from a speech given at the Institutional Research Workshop,
University of Washington, on September 11, 1968)

Studies of junior college student characteristics tend to suffer from the twin defects of being unimaginative and irrelevant to the interests and needs of faculty and staff. Research models which are learned in graduate school or preempted from studies of university students are often to blame, as they tend to be irrelevant to the research needs of the junior college. Still, researchers without such models are frequently mired in an uncohesive mass of quantitative data which no existing computer can analyze so as to answer questions asked "after the fact" of data gathering. The key to success in undertaking studies of junior college students lies in the asking of relevant, operational questions, the answers to which constitute a piece of a broad evaluation scheme ....

There are three major questions around which the junior colleges might well organize their research on students:

1. What kinds of students is the college attracting, for whom it must plan a wide range of programs and services?
2. How well are the students succeeding in the various programs and curricula the college now offers?
3. What kinds of changes can be made so as to increase the success of students in present programs (or in new ones, where needed)?

An addendum to the first question is an inquiry into the nature of the local high school graduates who are not now going on to college anywhere, whom the college should perhaps be attracting and serving. The second question cries for an inquiry into the factors related to success and failure -- student characteristics, instructional techniques, faculty preparation, program demands, and the like. The third question requires a prior inquiry into the nature of possible changes which would maximize opportunity for more students to be successful in programs.

.... For junior college studies, a useful categorization of student characteristics appears to be one related to prospects for change. A new student enters college with certain characteristics which are pretty well fixed -- among them sex, race, date and place of birth, and natural or adopted parents (or other adults responsible for the quality of his life to that point). Many of these "fixed" characteristics are powerful determiners of performance in college (and in fact, of whether the young person attends college at all), unless strong compensatory actions are taken.

The new student has many other characteristics which are quite amenable to change -- some as direct instructional outcomes, others as a function of maturation and growth among all young people (whether or not in college), and still others which may be regarded as facilitators and/or concomitants of the desired educational outcomes of the college programs. Examples of student characteristics which are often stated as program outcomes are changes in social attitudes (in a given direction), development of appreciation for certain art forms, and acquisition of problem-solving skills in certain areas.

Confusion in institutional studies of students often arises from treating as fixed certain characteristics which are quite amenable to change and which must, in fact, be changed if deeper learning is to take place. A very simple but commonly occurring example is the treatment of a reading score made by a student at entrance as a fixed determiner of his subsequent performance,on the basis of correlational studies, instead of treating reading ability as one facilitator of learning which can be vastly improved by special help at the college. Too often the college predicts failure for the entering student with low test scores and poor high school preparation, when it should instead attempt to change his performance on those measures which are significantly correlated with success in college. The college should be distressed by its students who live up to a prediction of failure, not elated by its selection of good predictive instruments!

Motivation, values, interests, and attitudes are all student characteristics which may be changed by and during college, as a result of maturation or the instructional program, or both.... Change may be detrimental to the student's chances for success in college, when, for example, motivation to earn a degree or interest in an occupational field decreases. (On the other hand) a positive change in vocational interest may result from part-time work experience in a job which the new student took to improve his financial status....

Measurement of student characteristics must be made repeatedly in order to understand the dynamics of change as the college and community "operate on" the student.

Types of Studies and Their Rationale - Most studies of junior college students are descriptive (normative), correlational (predictive), or evaluative (only occasionally experimental). Descriptive studies probably dominate now, particularly with the advent of the computer in smaller colleges... Descriptive studies do have an important place in research on college students, for the following educational purposes:

1. To find out what kinds of students the college is attracting, in relation to the total local population of high school graduates, and to note changes in characteristics of entering students over periods of time.
2. To compare the local student body (entering and graduating) with that which is attracted to other colleges -- within the state, junior colleges nationally, all colleges.
3. To assist the faculty and staff to plan new programs and services appropriate to the diversity of characteristics, needs, and interests of the changing student body.
4. To project future enrollments and related needs for faculty, programs, and facilities.

The precept "When in doubt, correlate!" probably explains the profusion of correlation studies to be found in new institutional research offices. Furthermore, the "best" colleges and universities have long relied on prediction studies in their selective admission programs. Testing companies offer to produce correlations as a service to the local college ("validity" studies) and almost guarantee a certain level of significance. It is not entirely unfair to say that junior colleges sometimes use their significant correlation coefficients to explain their past and present failures, when they should be using them as a springboard for improving programs and services. The results of correlation studies can be used more imaginatively, for example:

1. To counsel students about program and career choices, by confronting them with information about their probability of success if change does not take place.
2. To identify sub-groups of students whose success or failure cannot be predicted with any accuracy from existing measure of scholastic aptitude.
3. To develop special programs of assistance to improve academic skills and work habits which studies show to be highly related to success in college, and to place new students with a high probability of failure in such programs.
4. To make decisions about the use of guidance and placement tests based on their demonstrated usefulness, efficiency, and economy.

Evaluation and assessment of changes in student behavior represent the most pressing area of need for more (and better) institutional research. On the one hand we need student follow-up studies, in order to secure good normative or baseline data. Junior college follow-up studies are too often limited to the graduates, particularly the transfer students. Little attention is paid to dropouts, who may tranfer or take jobs, or to students suspended for poor scholarship, who may also find employment. Seldom are the characteristics of entering freshmen compared with those of the graduates and the dropouts to find out whether the academically ablest indeed survive to graduation. The other aspect of assessment which cries for attention is what might be called productivity or efficiency in bringing about desired changes in student characteristics, under varying conditions of instruction and supporting services and in different types of curricula.

.... Course and program objectives should be restated in behavioral terms, as expected changes in student behavior or characteristics. An over-simplified example can be drawn from the area of remedial programs: the college goal might well be to develop a more efficient reading program to bring "disadvantaged" students up to a given level of reading skill. Student objectives may be stated as changes in reading level, speed, and comprehension. Program objectives may include measures of cost, timing, and productivity, in relation to other reading programs (or none at all). However, underlying these concrete objectives is the need for the college to assess how well the program is achieving the goal of increasing the student's probability of success in regular college work. Is the program successful if two-thirds of the students raise their reading scores to an acceptable level in a given period of time? If they complete the program at all? If they go into transfer curricula? If they earn satisfactory grades for one term or one year?

Questions such as these lead to some general groupings of evaluative studies:

1. To assess the nature and extent of changes in students which can be attributed to the educational program (or student services), as distinguished from changes resulting from maturation, unplanned out-of-class activities, or off-campus experiences.
2. To identify major gaps in curricular offerings, instructional services, and supporting student services, as evidence in studies of attrition and failure.
3. To evaluate the relative effectiveness of new methods of instruction, materials, or services, and of increases or improvements in services (for example, reduction of class size or improvement of student-counselor ratio).
4. To assess student, faculty, and administrator opinion about actual and proposed changes in programs, services, practices, and policies, in terms of both effectiveness and attractiveness, and to feed back the opinion data into the planning and development process.

.... One possible response to student-faculty demands for a voice in the development of the institution rests with the institutional research effort: students can participate effectively in studying students -- themselves and each other, dropouts and graduates, applicants and non-college-goers. Their involvement in planning, executing, and evaluating the results of institutional studies should improve both the research and the college climate for change.

The Grand Design: Who Should Be Studied

The community college has an obligation to look beyond the characteristics of the new freshmen who enter each fall and the graduates who leave each spring. The characteristics and inferred educational needs of the community served by the college are an appropriate concern of the institutional researcher .... there are large segments of the population in each community who are not now availing themselves of opportunities offered by their community college. The unreached and unserved are frequently poor, non-white, undereducated by the public schools, recent arrivals in the area (or in the country)....

Few institutional researchers are equipped to undertake the "grand design" of a community self-survey focusing on the characteristics and educational needs of the entire post-high school population.... As an intermediate step, an enterprising institutional researcher might well begin his labors by surveying the local senior high school class, looking at such basic characteristics as socioeconomic status, race, sex, aptitudes, and school achievement record, all in relation to college-going and occupational plans. Characteristics of graduates going to the community college should be compared with (1) those going to other types of colleges and universities, (2) those seeking non-collegiate occupational training (in school or in job-training programs), and (3) those who at this point decide to "drop out" of formal education or training. Interviews with the latter "dropout" group are one of the best techniques for identifying unmet needs -- for information, guidance, financial aid, attitude change, new programs, and the like.

The two groups of greatest concern to the community college institutional researcher conducting longitudinal studies are the entering students at his college and the non-students (those not attending any college at all).... Many -- perhaps most -- young people are not truly ready for a college experience at age 18, particularly those in the lower three quartiles of ability. Significant changes in characteristics occur among the non-students after high school, sometimes more dramatically than among those who attend community colleges. With change comes a real readiness for a new, formal educational experience on the part of many, which the college should stand ready to build upon. The institutional researcher in a community college, then, needs to include in his grand design the broad spectrum of young people who should be enrolled students at some point in time. Ideally, he will study development and change occurring in both students and non-students, dropouts and graduates.

Institutional studies of student characteristics have tended to be unimaginative and often irrelevant to the concerns of the faculty and students. With unfailing monotony the studies show that junior college students tend to be older, poorer, less well prepared, more vocationally oriented, and less intellectual than their counterparts in many four-year institutions....

The Junior College Student: A Research Description by Patricia Cross (Educational Testing Service, Princeton,N.J. 08540, $1), provides an excellent point of departure for planning local studies. There is also an ever-increasing body of normative data for national samples of students which is being accumulated by agencies such as the American Council on Education, the American College Testing Program, and ETS. The national resources are now at hand; the need is for local initiative and imagination in studying one's own student clienteles.

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WHAT DOES A GOOD STUDENT PERSONNEL POLICY INCLUDE?

by James Kiser, Central Piedmont Community College, N.C.

Here is a checklist of major student personnel services found in the public community college with an "open door" policy:

Pre-admissions: 1. Providing descriptive information on policies, regulations, practices, and curricula of the college. 2. Visiting high schools in the service area of the institution to advise administrators and counselors regarding curricular offerings and to discuss college programs with prospective students. 3. Conducting on-campus visits from high school groups.

Admissions: 1. Administering pre-enrollment tests and inventories. 2. Assimilating data on students including high school and college transcripts, health inventories, and, when required, responses of character references. 3. Providing counseling services. 4. Conducting orientation activities consisting of discussion groups, social functions, and, when possible, semester-long seminars. 5. Distributing student handbooks.

Student Appraisal: 1. Developing a rationale for testing. 2. Selecting and administering tests and inventories. 3. Recording information on students' progress. 4. Providing a system of reporting grades and G.P.A.'s to students. 5. Conducting correlation studies of tests and class performance to insure local validity and reliability of tests.

Counseling and Advisement: 1. Pre-admissions counseling. 2. Personal-social counseling. 3. Referring (specialized counseling such as marriage and alcoholism). 4. Exit interviewing for students who withdraw. 5. Advising new, continuing, and returning students concerning appropriate courses each semester. 6. Assisting students who feel the need for changing programs. 7. Maintaining a confidential counseling file. 8. Providing counseling and advisement services to evening curriculum students proportionate to that which is available to day students. 9. Developing and maintaining a file of occupational information. 10. Counseling students who are on probation in their programs. 11. Counseling periodically with students who are engaged in remedial and developmental work preparatory to entering a certificate or degree program.

Student Activities: 1. Coordinating student government, student organizations, and social, cultural, and recreational activities. 2. Arranging for students to participate in planning and implementing the activities cited above in item #1. 3. Encouraging faculty participation, when desirable, in planning, implementing, and sponsoring student activities. 4. Keeping students informed regarding how they may initiate and participate in various activities. 5. Assuring that facilities are available. 6. Providing an activity program for students enrolled in summer sessions.

Financial Aids: 1. Administering a program of scholarships and loans supported by business, industry, other agencies, and individuals. 2. Exerting special effort to recruit low-income students. 3. Participating in federally sponsored financial aid programs. 4. Providing resources for short-term loans. 5. Assuring that no person is denied admission because of lack of funds. 6. Providing complete descriptive information on financial aid possibilities. 7. Maintaining a list of part-time employment opportunities.

Placement: 1. Systematizing placement of graduates either in appropriate employment or in higher education. 2. Providing the means by which employers may interview students approaching completion of occupationally-oriented programs. 3. Informing prospective employers of number scheduled to graduate from each occupationally-oriented program during the year.

Housing: 1. Providing a list of off-campus housing facilities. 2. Periodically checking on conditions of housing facilities in which students live.

Health Services: 1. Maintaining a place for students who are sick to rest while awaiting transportation home. 2. Developing an emergency procedure to be followed when a student is injured.

Regulatory: 1. Describing regulations regarding class attendance, smoking, conduct, etc., in catalogs and other publications. 2. Enforcing regulations in accordance with item #1 above. 3. Defining and administering eligibility requirements for graduation. 4. Discharging the legal, moral, and ethical obligations of the college to students. 5. Assuring that disciplinary actions are handled by persons other than counselors.

Remediation and Refresher Work: 1. Encouraging the creation of remedial and developmental programs for older students as well as recent high school graduates. 2. Aiding students to gain full acceptance in their programs as soon as possible.

Follow-Up: 1. Studying drop-outs and reasons for withdrawing. 2. Permitting graduates to evaluate their programs and other college experiences. 3. Coordinating a program of alumni affairs.

Administration (of Student Services): 1. Assuring that student services complement the instructional program. 2. Coordinating student services programs with other institutions in the community college system. 3. Organizing the student services program for effective operation. 4. Master planning for further growth and development. 5. Guaranteeing that student services are consistent with the philosophy and mission of the institution. 6. Selecting professional and sub-professional personnel who have the necessary qualifications required to function effectively. 7. Encouraging the staff to participate in appropriate professsional associations. 8. Encouraging close cooperation with the faculty. 9. Engaging in research activities on student characteristics. 10. Evaluating the effectiveness of each function. 11. Safeguarding confidentiality of records. -- Developing Junior Colleges newsletter.

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ARE OUR FACULTIES COMPETENT?

By Clyde E. Blocker

Perhaps the most fundamental question which can be asked of any institution is, "Is your faculty competent?" This is a persistent question with any young institution and, despite the fact that community colleges have proved their educational worth, students, parents, laymen, trustees, and university personnel continually bring this issue to the fore.

It is not enough for personnel of community colleges to assume that their competence is beyond question. Neither is it enough for colleges to depend entirely upon glossy publications and cliché-riddled speeches to persuade the public and fellow educators that community colleges are staffed by academically respectable and highly competent faculty members.

Innovations of any kind not only stimulate legitimate reservations on the part of the public, but also encounter ingrained resistance to change. A myriad of social, economic, and political problems are ample testimony to our general propensity for stability rather than innovation. Some problems in higher education illustrate this point:. curriculum reform to eliminate over-specialization, the development of effective methods for the evaluation of teaching, and the development of graduate programs specifically designed for potential college teachers.

All those concerned with community colleges, and especially trustees, need comparative information upon which to judge the competence of faculties. Trustees' college experiences are such that they generalize directly from the four-year to the two-year institution. Thus, the question is often asked, "Are we going to fill our faculty with former high school teachers, and refugees from graduate schools, business, and industry?" There is obviously much concern by trustees and laymen alike that the community college faculty will not glitter with the accouterments of academic respectability, and, therefore, they reason, the college will be an inferior academic institution.

Unfortunately, some community colleges seem to be in the Ph.D. race. Their trustees apparently do not understand the lack of a meaningful relationship between intensive subject matter specialization on the doctoral level and the teaching mission of the college. College administrators who are unduly sensitive to these attitudes and to the intra-institutional press of their faculties for academic respectability search frantically for degree holders who may or may not be effective teachers.

Much has been written on the inadequacy of the Ph.D. as a criteria for excellence in teaching. Joseph Datz' sharp comment regarding the doctorate as we know it today cuts to the heart of the matter. He said:

> *The orientation toward creating research specialists has two consequences: (1) It often leads, particularly*

> *in the Ph.D. thesis, to an emphasis on the minutiae and triviae of the field; for the neophyte cannot yet be entrusted with the more important, and more lively problems of the specialty heroes. This is the phenomenon of the Ph.D. octopus described by James (1911), Laski (1948), and others. (2) It leads to disorientation and frustration in the role that a majority of Ph.D.'s will assume. Some colleges of high quality and inner security, e.g., Amherst, make it possible for some of their faculty who are so inclined to give up the usual Ph.D. ambition and to turn fruitfully to undergraduate teaching. But for most college teachers, graduate school norms remain the predominant yardstick of achievement throughout their academic careers.*[1]

Despite these valid criticisms, the Ph.D. remains the hallmark of quality in the academic community and among many influential laymen. Other factors which dominate subjectively derived opinions of quality include the graduate institutions the faculty member attended, age, experience, sex, and relation of graduate and undergraduate studies to teaching assignments. It seems reasonable, therefore, to assume that if community colleges are to enjoy broader understanding and acceptance from the general public and professional educators, a fruitful analysis could be made of three aspects of community college faculties. They are: (1) a direct comparison of the qualifications of university and community college faculties; (2) a comparison of the roles of these two faculties; and (3) a description of the kinds of qualities needed in community college teachers.

Universities and Community Colleges Compared

A recent study of 2,783 new faculty members in 429 public and private, two-year colleges in fifty states and territories, developed a comprehensive picture of the characteristics of this group.[2] These data can be compared with a similar study of new university faculty members. The study of university personnel included 1,119 individuals in sixty-four institutions in the states covered by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.[3]

When these two groups are compared by age, there is a decided similarity between them. Seventy-six per cent of the new, community college instructors were less than forty years of age. Seventy-five per cent of the university personnel were less than thirty-nine years of age. The percentage between forty and fifty years was quite similar in both groups. Community colleges had a slightly higher number in the fifty-to-sixty age group than did universities. The difference was small, however. The median age for community college personnel was 31 and the university group, 31.4 years.

Marital status was also comparable. Community colleges had 6.7 per cent more married personnel, and 5.3 per cent less single personnel than did universities. Approximately three-fourths of community college teachers were married, as contrasted to two-thirds of the university instructors.

When we compare the educational preparation of these two groups, we find that there is a difference of approximately 20 per cent in the number of doctoral degrees in favor of colleges and universities. On the other hand, community colleges had 10 per cent more master's degrees and 8 per cent more bachelor's degrees than did universities. We will comment on these disparities at greater length below.

How well did the employing institutions match faculty members' educational qualifications and teaching assignments? Two-thirds of the community college group taught courses in their major graduate field. Less than one-fourth taught courses in which preparation was on the undergraduate level. Only 9.2 per cent taught courses not related to their major field of study. It is clear that community colleges employ faculty members qualified by previous educational experiences for teaching assignments consistent with their academic specializations. We find quite a similar pattern among new university personnel. Sixty-nine per cent were assigned teaching positions in their major fields, seventeen per cent taught in the major field and one additional field, while 12 per cent were teaching courses not related to their major educational preparation. Thus, a slightly higher percentage of university personnel, 3.2 per cent, taught courses not related to their majors, and slightly less, 5.6 per cent, taught subjects outside of their major field of study.

Previous Professional Experience

When we examine the previous professional experience of these two groups of teachers, similarities far outweigh seeming differences. Approximately nine out of ten of the individuals in both groups had no experience in elementary education. Seventeen per cent of the university personnel had from one to ten or more years of experience on this level. Eleven per cent of community college teachers had worked in elementary schools.

The patterns of previous experience in secondary education were also quite similar. Approximately half had taught in high schools. Forty-nine per cent of the new community college teachers, and 47 per cent of new university instructors had secondary school experience.

One of four community college teachers had previously taught in a four-year institution. Seventy-seven per cent had not had this experience. A slightly higher number, 41 per cent, employed by universities had had previous experience on this to a role of roles within the educational system and society. . . . The role of the college is perhaps the prime determinant of its array of faculty perspectives, and the distribution of faculty values among campuses is largely determined by the differing commitments of the colleges."[4]

The four purposes of community colleges: college parallel, technical and vocational, guidance, and community service, have been sufficiently described to eliminate the necessity of further elaboration here. It is sufficient to point out that the community college, with its strong commitment to classroom teaching and student counseling, is, or should be, committed to developing a faculty with a local (teaching) orientation as contrasted to the university's desire for cosmopolitan faculty orientation (writer, researcher, consultant).

When this distinction is made clear, it becomes more obvious that community colleges are employing individuals who, in general, will meet the social and professional demands of these institutions.

When we compare the roles of university and community college personnel, we find a number of factors which point up some similarities as well as some significant differences. Community college instructors are expected to teach freshman-sophomore courses in college parallel, technical, and vocational courses. In many instances, they also participate in formal or informal technical and cultural short courses. Their research activities are generally limited to institutional projects with only limited emphasis upon esoteric research in a subject matter discipline. Their institutional roles seldom include consultation with business and industry, or government service. Their relationships with students in the classroom, in academic advisement and counseling, and student activities are extensive if they are meeting institutional expectations.

University personnel teach courses from the freshman through the graduate level. Their aspirations push them toward graduate teaching. The university also has broad expectations for faculty participation in one or all of the following: research, consultation with business or government, and, perhaps most important of all, the development of national or international eminence in their areas of specialization.

TABLE II

COMPARISON OF HIGHEST DEGREE HELD BY COMMUNITY COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PERSONNEL

	Per Cent Community Colleges	*Per Cent College and University*
Doctor's degree	7.2	27
Master's degree	73.2	63
Bachelor's degree	18.4	10
None Indicated	1.2	0
	100.0	100

TABLE III

INITIAL TEACHING ASSIGNMENTS OF NEW FACULTY MEMBERS IN COMMUNITY COLLEGES AS COMPARED TO THEIR MAJOR IN HIGHEST DEGREE

	Number	*Per Cent*
Subject taught agrees with major (master's or doctor's degree)	1,847	66.3
Subject taught agrees with undergraduate major (bachelor's degree)	630	22.6
Subject taught does not agree with graduate or undergraduate major	254	9.2
No response	52	1.9
Total	2,783	100.0

The employment of new faculty by both types of institutions accurately reflects the differing missions the two kinds of organizations are attempting to achieve, and their expectations of new personnel. Eighty per cent of new faculty in colleges and universities were given the rank of instructor and assistant professor. These two ranks do not generally include tenure. Such new personnel are, in reality, apprentices. Eighty-eight per cent of them were assigned undergraduate courses only.[5] New university faculty are selected for their promise as future scholars and researchers, but they must serve their internship in undergraduate courses. The "cosmopolitan" scholars with demonstrated research and writing ability are responsible primarily for upper division and graduate courses.

Competent Teachers for Community Colleges

Community colleges select new faculty members who show promise as superior teachers of freshman and sophomore students. The master's degree and extensive experience in secondary or higher education are the indices of potentially successful teachers and counselors. Such qualifications seem eminently suitable for dealing with students experiencing their initial encounter with the rigors of higher education who, at the same time, are making far-reaching decisions which will affect their entire pattern of life.

Two-year colleges need individuals with a deep commitment to teaching leavened with an appreciation of, and a competence in, one or more academic disciplines. The paragon of the teacher-scholar-

TABLE IV

INITIAL TEACHING ASSIGNMENTS OF NEW FACULTY MEMBERS IN SELECTED N.C.A. COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES AS COMPARED TO THEIR MAJOR IN HIGHEST DEGREE

Assignment Relationship to Major	*Number*	*Per Cent*
Teaching only in major field	775	69
Teaching major and at least one other field	185	17
Not teaching in major	135	12
No response	24	2
Totals	1119	100

writer, as a necessity in every college and university, is a myth which tenaciously clings to life through endless repetitions in verbal and printed utterances made in the absence of empirical evidence. The number of individuals who would qualify as superior in all three areas constitutes a minute percentage of the total number of professionals in higher education. A more realistic appraisal leads to the conclusion that college and university personnel are superior in one or two such categories and demonstrate only average ability in the other.

When we take a realistic look at the educational objectives and the staffing needs of community colleges, the needed personal and professional characteristics of faculty members begin to emerge in a more clear-cut pattern.

William J. McKeefery has described three kinds of effective teachers: the departmental specialist, the generalist, and the student-centered teacher.[6]

McKeefery derived his descriptions from studies of effective teaching and from personal observation. He also depended upon critical incident studies which made possible analysis of individual self-images held by college teachers.

The departmental specialist had these characteristics:

1. A keen concern for recent research and a desire to participate in it and to use the results in the classroom.

2. A loose connection with professional groups and other individuals interested in the same area. (He frequently involves his students in these meetings.)

3. A larger concern for the specific curriculum of his area than the general curriculum, although he wants his majors to choose broadly from the liberal arts.

4. A relatively stiff grader, intolerant of cheating, but willing to put a large amount of confidence in his students.

5. Willingness to spend a considerable amount of extra time with promising students.

6. A professor's professor usually held in high esteem by his colleagues.

7. A dedicated man centering most of his time and talent on his field and his students. His greatest anxiety is that he is not doing enough reading and research.

8. A directive teacher who tends to go as rapidly as the class can follow and is usually prepared to suggest more for the ablest. He frequently uses a content-centered approach.

9. One who has large acquaintance with the library holdings in his area and motivates his students to read, by personal references and assignments.

10. Tends to consider educational methodology secondary to the fundamental love of his subject.

The generalist had a broader outlook than the departmental specialist relative to other aspects of the educational program. He was characterized as ". . . a catalyst harmonizing the interests of subject matter specialists and the life-centered goals of the students."

He was described as follows:

1. Having a willingness to experiment with new teaching methods.

2. Having an anchor security in his original teaching fields although professional progress in this area has been diluted by preoccupation with the general.

3. Having a cooperative and tolerant attitude toward colleagues and all phases of the curriculum.

4. Having well-defined course objectives and procedures.

5. Devising evaluation procedures to measure outcomes and not subject matter only.

6. Having concern for critical thinking and deeper understanding.

TABLE V

PREVIOUS PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE OF NEW COMMUNITY COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PERSONNEL

	Elementary		*Secondary*		*Senior College*		*Community College*		*Other Full-Time*	
	Comm. Colleges	*Colleges & Univ.*	*Comm. Colleges*	*Colleges & Univ.*	*Comm. Colleges*	*Colleges & Univ.*	*Comm. Colleges*	*Colleges & Univ.*	*Comm. Colleges*	*Colleges & Univ.*
No experience	89	83	51	57	77	59	81	----	----	93
1-3 years	7	9	21	20	15	20	14	----	----	5
4-10 years	3	5	22	16	6	14	4	----	----	1
10 years or more	1	3	6	6	2	7	1	----	----	0
Totals	100	100	100	99*	100	100	100	----	----	99*

* Totals marked not equal to total number due to rounding by whole numbers.

TABLE VI

DEGREE LEVEL OF FACULTY TEACHING ENGLISH COMPOSITION AND LITERATURE

English Literature I and II
(University)

Rank	*Ph.D.*	*M.A.*	*B.A.*	*Total*
Professor	3			3
Associate Professor	7	1		8
Assistant Professor	1			1
Instructor	1	5	1	7
Teaching Assistant		14	5	19
Lecturer	1			1
	13	20	6	39

English Composition I and II
(University)

Rank	*Ph.D.*	*M.A.*	*B.A.*	*Total*
Professor				
Associate Professor				
Assistant Professor	2			2
Instructor	3	3	1	7
Teaching Assistant		19	25	44
Lecturer	1			1
	6	22	26	54

English Composition and English Literature
(Public Community Colleges)

Rank	*Ph.D.*	*M.A.*	*B.A.*	*Total*
Instructors	5	56	5	66

7. Having an enthusiasm for the liberal arts and/or general education concepts.

8. Having occasional concern that the integrated approach does not provide the desired depth for the specialist's approval.

9. Having a desire to visit other schools, attend workshops and conferences.

10. Possessing a skill in carrying along students of average as well as superior ability.

The student-centered teacher is competent in his subject matter but is student-centered in his approach to teaching. McKeefery describes him as an individual who performs in the following ways:

1. Knows the psychology of learning, especially group dynamics.

2. Gets along well, both in class and out, with his students and colleagues.

3. Has no problem with class discipline; gives less time to mechanics and details.

4. Uses flexible seating and informal approaches.

5. Depends on two-way communication—often students say more than the teacher.

6. Sessions are seldom dull, but occasionally get off the track.

7. Emphasis on subject matter and recall is moderate; he frequently uses the problem approach and teaches for critical thinking.

8. He often is involved in personal counseling with his students.

9. He is considerate, fair to his students, and respects minority opinions.

10. He is often aware of campus problems and attitudes involving other instructors of the administration.

Community colleges need all three kinds of instructors. A balanced mix of teachers having these characteristics would make an ideal faculty. In the final analysis, the success of a teacher can be measured only in relation to the success of his students; whether they go on to advance study or into an occupation. If students have meaningful relationships with the variety of teachers described above, they should be quite capable of succeeding in the professions or occupations of their choice.

Summary

We have briefly reviewed and compared community college and university faculties as demonstrated by commonly accepted criteria, their comparative roles, and the qualities needed for effective teaching. There are fewer differences between the two groups than is ordinarily surmised by laymen and members of the academic community. These data demonstrate that community college faculties are adequately trained and competent to fulfill the demands of their roles in two-year institutions. There is no empirical evidence indicating that community colleges do not have faculties which include specialists, generalists, and student-centered teachers.

In our quest for quality it is important that extensive, substantive research on faculty competence and roles be made available to administrators, trustees, and laymen. Much good can accrue to community colleges if such empirical data is made available to all concerned.

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[4] Clark, Burton. *The Study of Campus Culture.* Boulder, Colorado: Western Interstate Commission for Higher Education, 1962.

[5] *op. cit.*, McCall, p. 8.

[6] McKeefery, William J. "Some Observations of Effective Teaching." *Collegiate News and Views.* Cincinnati, Ohio: South Western Publishing Co. March, 1959. pp. 2-4.

By Ray C. Maul

THE BIGGEST PROBLEM: FINDING GOOD TEACHERS

Junior Colleges Are Evidencing Some Progress in Raising The Academic Qualifications of Faculty Personnel

Where will our youth of tomorrow go to college? Will facilities be adequate?

Will a sufficient supply of teachers be available?

The latter question is the most perplexing problem. New campuses can be built but a potential teacher is an independent, self-willed person, highly susceptible to the competing occupations seeking his services. The graduation of a certain number of persons at the various degree levels does not automatically assure an available supply of personnel for faculty positions.

But the quantitative nature of the problem—sheer numbers—must be squarely faced. Nobody will dispute the assertion that the junior college share of the total undergraduate enrollment will grow. And, of course, higher education enrollments will grow at a much faster pace than at either the elementary- or secondary-school level. Early in the 1960's the National Education Association Research Division's Committee on Educational Finance sought to emphasize the significance of the Bureau of the Census figures which pointed to ten-year increases, 1960-1970, in these brackets of the population:

Ages	*Per Cent*
5-11 (K-6)	17.0
12-17 (6 or 3-3)	33.0
14-17 (4-year H.S.)	42.7
18-21 (undergraduate)	56.6

Now, at the half-way point in the decade, we can see what the impact of these population figures will be. The real flood is just beginning to lap at the shores of higher education; the crest of the tide must not be expected at the freshman level for another five years. Meanwhile the senior institutions will be frantically trying to prepare for their enlarged responsibility beyond the first two years of post-high school education.

In state after state the realization is growing that a system of public junior colleges must assume a greatly enlarged role. States already supporting substantial systems are leading the way with their programs of expansion. Some of the remaining states are now blessed with leadership of vision, ready to face the challenge while there is yet time.

But the planning of new campuses, new buildings, and other physical facilities is not enough. The real crux of the problem is this: Can a sufficient number of competent teachers be found? And what elements constitute the "competence" of the junior college teacher?

The junior colleges, to fulfill their function, differ from their senior sisters in many ways but perhaps most significantly in their emphasis on terminal and vocationally oriented education. As the colleges and universities concentrate more and more on upper level and graduate offerings, they will be thrusting an enlarged responsibility for vocational and terminal education upon the junior college. But, at the same time, they will also be leaving to the junior colleges a greatly expanded responsibility for the first two years of general programs in the arts and sciences, teacher education, and sound undergraduate preparation for graduate study in many fields. And this dual role, of course, gives rise to the necessity for greater diversity in teaching staff.

Comparisons with Senior Institutions

As the universities and colleges (1,400-plus) and the junior colleges (780-plus) battle with each other and among themselves, and even more keenly with other occupations, for desirable teachers comparisons will inevitably be drawn. In the five biennial reports issued by the N.E.A. Research Division since 1956, I have undertaken to show the levels of preparation of new teachers entering service in the various types of institutions, with junior colleges reported separately. Sometimes these data have been used for comparisons without taking into account the difference in function to be per-formed. Certainly, the qualifications of new teachers in the vocational-technical programs of a junior college cannot be measured on the same scale as the qualifications of new teachers in a university, or even a college of arts and sciences. The academic achievements of new teachers—advanced degrees earned—weigh much more heavily in prediction of real effectiveness in the classroom in one instance than in the other. Unfortunately, however, equally appropriate criteria have not been generally established and recognized for the prediction of success in some of the teaching fields most likely to expand as junior college curriculums evolve to meet the requirements of many more two-year students.

Another limiting factor in the usefulness of this measure of qualifications of new teachers is often overlooked. It is the role of the part-time teacher.

Part-Time Teachers

Part-time teachers are used extensively in the instructional programs of practically all types of institutions of higher education. In the most recent Research Division survey the universities and colleges reported 1964-65 staffs consisting of 168,074 full-time and 66,385 part-time teachers. Typically, the part-time junior college teacher is a mature, experienced worker in the occupation being explored by the student. There, the presence or absence of academic degrees is not a vital—perhaps not even a major—factor in determining the teacher's qualifications. But a successful background of firsthand experience *is* of first importance.

On the other hand, in the colleges, and more particularly in the universities, the typical part-time teacher may be youthful, inexperienced in any occupation (including teaching), and quite possibly not interested in teaching as an occupation. Typically, he may be a graduate student, ready to accept any part-time employment which will enable him to pursue his own major objective. Possibly this may be college teaching, and doubtless many fine college teachers have found their life careers through part-time teaching while pursuing graduate study. But, in many instances, the university graduate assistant is doing little more than the minimum required for this temporary employment while he pursues his own graduate program and, perhaps, another career objective.

Actually, little is known about the qualifications of many thousands of persons serving in classrooms on a part-time basis. In each of fourteen large universities the part-time teachers number more than 1,000; in sixteen others the number is more than 500 each. They are, of course, working almost exclusively with freshmen and sophomores. In some courses, in some universities, the beginning students taught in this manner may actually out-number the freshmen being taught by full-time staff members. Yet, these part-time teachers are not included in any study of the qualifications of the institution's teaching staff. This factor, much in need of objective investigations, must be recognized in any comparison of qualifications of the teaching staffs of different types of institutions.

Preparation of New Junior College Teachers

With the above limitations in mind I have undertaken, in the biennial N.E.A. Research Division studies, to examine the academic qualifications of the successive groups of new teachers entering *full-time* service in junior colleges. New teachers, those not engaged as junior college teachers anywhere the preceding year, were arbitrarily divided into these four groups: (1) Those holding the doctor's degree; (2) those having completed at least one year of graduate study beyond the master's degree; (3) those holding the master's degree; (4) those who had not yet earned the master's degree.

During the eight years of record (1957-58 through 1964-65) new teachers with the highest academic attainments, the doctor's degree, have consistently comprised about 7 per cent of the total. Those having completed at least one year of graduate study beyond the master's degree have comprised about one-fifth of the total each year—just over or just under 20 per cent. But meaningful progress has been made in (a) increasing the percentage of new teachers who hold the master's degree, and (b) reducing the percentage who had not attained this status at the time of full-time employment as junior college teachers. Those with the master's degree have increased from a scant 44 per cent to well above 50 per cent; those without this degree have decreased from more than 28 per cent to about 23 per cent.

These figures are encouraging, particularly in view of the vast increase in enrollments during the past eight years. Junior colleges seem to have about "held their own" in the manpower market. Wide variations are brought to light, however, in the field-by-field analysis.

Differences Among Fields of Instruction

Since junior college staffs in the vocational-technical fields are chosen, in part, on the basis of their experience and success in their respective fields, along with the evaluation of personal qualities, they are appropriately excluded from this detailed analysis of academic preparation.

A look at the twenty-one principal fields of instruction, as listed below, shows the percentage of new teachers who held the doctor's degree or had earned at least one year of graduate credit beyond the master's degree at the time of employment. More than 40 per cent of the new, full-time teachers employed by junior colleges in 1963-64 and 1964-65 in these four fields were at this advanced level of preparation: general social studies, psychology, history, and Spanish. In these six fields more than 30 per cent of the new teachers were similarly prepared: biological sciences, political science, French, economics, chemistry, and physics. In some instances, e.g., biological sciences, the percentage of new teachers at this high level of preparation has been increased since 1957-58. In a number of the other major fields, however, the percentage has remained almost constant. Chemistry, English, and political science show losses.

At the other end of the preparation scale—new teachers not yet holding the master's degree—the most meaningful progress is evident. Of the twenty-one fields listed below, only economics, history, and political science lack evidence of progress during the eight years under study. In many fields the junior colleges have been able not only to hold their own, but to reduce the percentage of their new teachers who enter service with this modest level of preparation.

PER CENT OF NEW TEACHERS WITH DOCTOR'S DEGREE OR MASTER'S DEGREE PLUS ONE YEAR

Field	*1957-58 and 1958-59*	*1959-60 and 1960-61*	*1961-62 and 1962-63*	*1963-64 and 1964-65*
Accounting		12.4	24.5	20.2
Art	21.3	14.0	19.7	21.9
Biological sciences	31.1	32.4	37.8	39.3
Chemistry	37.3	28.3	35.7	33.3
Economics	37.0	34.6	37.8	34.9
Engineering	11.2	12.0	12.1	6.7
English	33.1	31.1	28.2	27.5
French	not computed	not computed	38.9	37.6
General business	22.7	18.8	16.5	23.5
General social studies	not computed	37.6	32.1	46.9
History	43.6	51.9	40.6	43.3
Mathematics	22.9	16.3	26.0	25.5
Music	24.6	21.4	26.6	29.9
Nursing	8.2	4.7	10.9	10.5
Physical and health education	11.5	11.3	13.3	11.6
Physics	29.2	26.6	24.4	30.9
Political science	47.3	55.7	53.1	37.9
Psychology	48.1	41.2	47.6	46.6
Secretarial	6.7	9.2	13.4	12.4
Spanish	not computed	not computed	37.4	41.8
Speech	25.8	24.2	20.1	27.5

PER CENT OF NEW TEACHERS WITH LESS THAN MASTER'S DEGREE

Field	*1957-58 and 1958-59*	*1959-60 and 1960-61*	*1961-62 and 1962-63*	*1963-64 and 1964-65*
Accounting	not computed	34.9	15.7	25.6
Art	40.1	27.9	18.2	19.8
Biological sciences	14.1	13.2	11.5	12.1
Chemistry	20.3	19.3	15.8	14.9
Economics	10.1	6.9	6.1	15.9
Engineering	67.9	46.7	41.8	50.8
English	13.7	8.6	9.7	10.2
French	not computed	not computed	19.4	17.4
General business	31.9	26.9	15.2	19.5
General social studies	not computed	9.7	6.7	8.3
History	6.2	3.9	3.5	8.4
Mathematics	19.2	21.3	12.8	17.3
Music	21.7	20.4	20.1	10.7
Nursing	58.7	51.1	39.9	43.6
Physical and health education	46.1	35.9	36.9	34.9
Physics	32.7	21.3	22.2	19.9
Political science	5.3	6.6	5.8	9.1
Psychology	10.3	8.8	6.4	5.2
Secretarial	46.9	43.1	25.6	35.9
Spanish	not computed	not computed	14.1	13.8
Speech	14.4	15.4	14.1	13.2

Sources of New Supply

Consistently, throughout the eight years of investigation, the largest single source of new junior college teachers has been the high school classroom. About three of every ten have come from this source. In 1963-64 and 1964-65 the 369 reporting public junior colleges drew 32.2 per cent of their 6,226 new teachers directly from high school classrooms the preceding year; the 197 reporting private junior colleges took 22.3 per cent of their 1,400 new teachers from this source. These figures bring out the difference in emphasis upon specific elements in the qualifications of desirable new teachers. The large, private universities took only 3.7 per cent of their new teachers from the high school staff of a year earlier; the large, public universities, 5.2 per cent.

New junior college teachers whose principal occupation was that of graduate student the preceding year accounted for 23.7 per cent of the total, while the degree-granting institutions took as many as 48.9 per cent from this source.

Third in popularity as a source of new junior college teachers were the staffs of colleges and universities. Junior colleges pulled 17.1 per cent of the 7,626 new full-time teachers employed the past two years from the degree-granting institutions, while the latter recruited only 1.6 per cent of their 29,621 new teachers from junior college staffs. A study of the reasons underlying this mobility should be enlightening.

The defection of teachers from universities, colleges, and junior colleges to business and industry has been widely discussed in educational circles. The outflow of able, comprehensively prepared teachers has been the cause of much concern. Actual figures concerning the number of persons lost to teaching, however, have not been compiled. But the inflow from business and industry to teaching has been one of the items included in these studies.

For all degree-granting institutions combined, the inflow the past two years was 8.2 per cent of the new staff recruited. The range was from 11.6 per cent in the large, private universities to 4.5 per cent in the small, private colleges. The junior colleges found as many as 11.3 per cent of their new teachers engaged in business and industrial occupations a year earlier. Here again, the differences in emphasis upon the function of the institution is clearly inferred.

TABLE I
SOURCES OF NEW FULL-TIME JUNIOR COLLEGE TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN 1963-64 AND 1964-65

Source	*All junior colleges (Per cent)*	*Public junior colleges (Per cent)*	*Private junior colleges (Per cent)*
High school teaching	30.3%	32.2%	22.3%
Graduate school	23.7	23.0	27.2
College or university teaching	17.1	17.3	16.2
Business occupation	11.3	11.2	11.7
Bachelor's degree class	3.7	3.0	7.0
Other educational service	2.4	2.4	2.3
Miscellaneous noneducational	2.1	2.3	1.0
Government service (civilian)	2.0	2.2	1.1
Research	1.5	1.4	2.0
Homemaking	1.4	1.3	1.7
Elementary school teaching	1.3	1.1	2.0
Military service	1.2	1.2	1.1
School administration	1.0	0.9	1.3
Religious service	1.0	0.5	3.1
All sources	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Number of junior colleges reporting	547	356	191

TABLE II
NEW FULL-TIME JUNIOR COLLEGE TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN 1963-64 AND 1964-65

Field	*Number*	*Per cent*
English	1,223	16.0%
Business	835	10.9
Mathematics	510	6.7
Physical and health education	510	6.7
Vocational-technical	424	5.6
Biological sciences	420	5.5
History	383	5.0
Foreign languages	379	5.0
Nursing	305	4.0
Chemistry	282	3.7
Psychology	249	3.3
Art	187	2.4
Speech	182	2.4
Physics	181	2.4
Engineering	179	2.3
Sociology	142	1.9
Other	1,235	16.2
TOTAL	7,626	100.0%

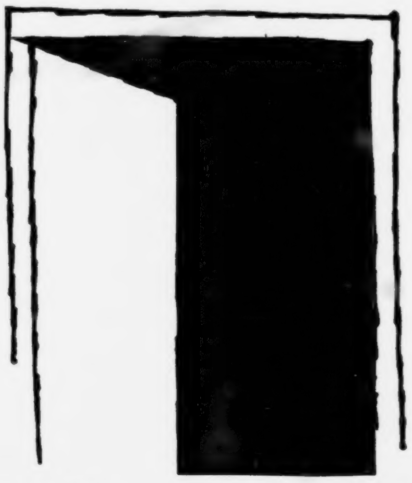
These four sources, the high school classroom, the graduate school, college and university staffs, and business and industry, account for almost three-fourths of all new junior college teachers. Of the ten other sources shown in Table I, none contributes as many as one in twenty-five. Those coming immediately from the bachelor's degree graduating class are fifth in frequency, with 3.7 per cent.

Number of New Teachers Employed

The most recent N.E.A. Research Division study is based on reports from 369 public and 197 private junior colleges. In the years 1963-64 and 1964-65 they employed 7,626 new full-time teachers. The 4,490 employed in the latter year constituted 20.2 per cent of the total full-time staff. These new teachers include both replacements and staff additions. (In the degree-granting institutions the 16,059 new, full-time teachers employed in 1964-65 constituted 9.6 per cent of the total full-time staff.)

Table II shows the distribution of new junior college teachers. English heads the list, with 16 per cent of the total. Business subjects claim 10.9 per cent, but no other field employed as many as 7 per cent of the new teachers.

Will Evaluations of Teachers Be Welcome?



OPEN-DOOR CLASSROOMS FOR OPEN-DOOR COLLEGES

The American Council on Education Survey of Current Practices In Evaluation of Teaching in Various Types of Colleges Shows That Junior Colleges Put Less Emphasis on Research and Publication

By Calvin B. T. Lee

Junior colleges often point out proudly that they do not overemphasize publication and research, that they are more student oriented than are other types of undergraduate institutions, and that they evaluate faculty members primarily on the basis of their teaching and performance. Are these claims true? Are their classroom doors open so that the teaching performance of the faculty can be properly examined and evaluated?

The American Council on Education recently published the results of a survey of current practices in the evaluation of college teaching.[1] These results were based on 1,110 replies—which provided empirical evidence for a critical appraisal of current practices and their implications—received from academic deans of junior colleges, liberal arts colleges, teachers colleges, and university deans of colleges of arts and sciences, education, engineering, business, and agriculture. This article will review briefly the findings of the study as they relate to junior colleges, and will define some of the challenges confronting higher education which junior colleges can be particularly helpful in meeting.

Criteria for Promotion, Salary, or Tenure

The criteria used for promotion, salary increases, or tenure are based on a number of factors, including classroom teaching, research, publication, public service, outside consulting, activities in professional societies, student advising, campus committee work, length of service in rank, competing job offers, and personal attributes. The questionnaire used in the study listed thirteen such criteria and asked the respondent to indicate whether each was a "major factor," "minor factor," "not a factor," or "not applicable" in the evaluation of faculty. Over 95 per cent said that classroom teaching is a major factor; indeed, it was the highest ranking criteria in all eight types of undergraduate colleges.

As Table I clearly shows, junior colleges, unlike the other types of colleges, pay virtually no attention to research and publication. Aside from that difference, junior colleges have patterns somewhat similar to those of teachers colleges and liberal arts colleges. All three have an identical rank order of "major factors" of: (a) classroom teaching, (b) personal attributes, (c) length of service in rank, (d) student advising, (e) campus committee work.

The attributes preferred at these institutions are classroom-centered and campus-centered. Activities directed to the outside world—consulting, competing job offers, and even public service, and activity in professional societies—are of less importance.

Although all eight types of institutions indicated that classroom teaching was the most important factor, the percentage difference between this criteria and the one ranking second is significant. In the case of junior colleges, 98.2 per cent said that classroom teaching was a major factor; only 69.2 per cent checked personal attributes, the second-place criterion, as a major factor. In the university colleges of arts and sciences, there was a mere .9 per cent difference between classroom teaching and research, the second ranking criterion. Classroom teaching at the junior colleges, therefore, is weighted much more heavily than any other factor in evaluating faculty.

Sources of Evaluative Information

The designation and ranking of criteria is not very meaningful unless we know the sources of evaluative information used. To discover the manner in which classroom teaching is being evaluated, the questionnaire listed fifteen sources of information and asked the respondent to check whether the item was used in "all departments," "most depart-

TABLE I

IMPORTANCE OF VARIOUS FACTORS IN EVALUATING FACULTY FOR PROMOTION, SALARY, OR TENURE

	Percentage of deans checking item as a "major factor"								
				University colleges					
Source of information	*Junior colleges* (N=128)	*Teachers colleges* (N=133)	*Liberal arts colleges* (N=484)	*Arts and sciences* (N=110)	*Education* (N=48)	*Engineering* (N=109)	*Business* (N=65)	*Agriculture* (N=33)	*All colleges* (N=1,110)
Classroom teaching	98.2	94.0	97.6	93.6	91.7	93.7	95.3	93.8	95.9
Personal attributes	69.2	53.8	61.3	33.7	46.8	53.9	50.0	70.0	56.8
Length of service in rank	63.3	47.4	59.9	21.3	33.3	24.3	18.8	46.9	47.4
Student advising	42.5	37.7	46.8	20.2	38.3	29.6	22.2	62.5	39.5
Campus committee work	41.5	35.6	32.6	15.7	21.3	13.9	21.9	34.4	29.2
Activity in professional societies	18.3	28.2	23.9	19.8	33.3	28.4	35.9	31.3	25.3
Public service	15.7	22.0	16.1	23.2	48.9	14.8	29.7	43.8	20.5
Supervision of honors program[a]	4.3	2.5	14.3	21.7	3.2	11.5	10.3	12.5	12.4
Outside consulting	4.0	12.3	2.4	2.8	17.4	5.7	6.4	9.4	5.3
Competing job offers	3.1	10.9	9.8	31.1	10.4	16.8	15.6	31.3	13.2
Research	1.0	27.1	31.7	92.7	79.2	82.0	84.4	87.5	46.6
Publication	1.0	22.0	24.5	83.3	70.8	70.9	82.8	80.7	39.9
Supervision of graduate study[a]	—	16.0	17.8	55.2	52.2	59.6	38.7	61.3	40.8

[a] Percentages are actually based on considerably smaller N's because of the relatively high number of deans who checked "not applicable."

TABLE II

FREQUENCY WITH WHICH VARIOUS SOURCES OF EVALUATIVE INFORMATION ARE USED IN DIFFERENT TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS

	Percent reporting use in all or most departments							
				University colleges				
Source of Information	*Junior colleges* (N=128)	*Teachers colleges* (N=133)	*Liberal arts colleges* (N=484)	*Arts and sciences* (N=110)	*Education* (N=48)	*Engineering* (N=109)	*Business* (N=65)	*Agriculture* (N=33)
Dean evaluation	82.7	80.5	83.5	71.8	91.7	80.4	89.1	84.4
Chairman evaluation	65.8	89.6	82.2	98.2	91.3	92.7	88.7	93.9
Classroom visits	42.2	25.8	9.8	2.0	4.4	8.7	5.2	3.0
Course syllabi and examinations	37.0	28.6	29.4	5.9	11.1	22.8	22.6	39.4
Informal student opinions	33.6	28.0	47.2	35.0	48.9	42.5	47.6	28.1
Grade distributions	30.6	27.7	36.0	15.5	9.3	18.5	19.4	15.3
Colleagues' opinions	29.2	34.9	50.6	62.0	48.9	53.8	71.9	46.9
Long-term follow-up of students	26.1	6.2	9.9	1.0	9.1	13.5	1.6	9.4
Self-evaluation or report	22.3	14.8	15.4	11.0	27.3	11.9	26.3	12.9
Student examination performance	21.6	16.2	24.7	12.9	4.6	15.5	20.0	9.4
Systematic student ratings	16.1	4.9	11.2	11.3	13.0	14.0	20.6	26.5
Committee evaluation	15.7	17.3	28.9	30.8	28.9	23.3	30.0	6.3
Alumni opinions	8.2	8.7	11.2	2.9	2.3	13.3	16.7	9.4
Enrollment in elective courses	6.8	7.8	14.0	11.5	2.3	8.8	14.8	3.2
Scholarly research and publication	4.2	34.1	36.6	70.0	63.8	72.9	75.0	56.3

ments," "some departments," or "not used." Table II shows how frequently each of fifteen sources was used by all or most departments at the eight types of undergraduate schools.

Junior colleges rely most heavily on evaluations by the dean (82.7 per cent). Evaluations by department chairmen, the next most frequently used source, are relied upon much less by junior colleges than by the other types of institutions. This finding probably reflects the weaker departmental structure at junior colleges. The most significant and important difference is that at junior colleges, classroom visits as a source of information for teacher evaluation rank third: 42.2 per cent as compared with 25.8 per cent for teachers colleges and under 10 per cent for each of the other types. This open-door classroom policy, which allows the dean, chairman, or colleague to base his evaluation of teaching performance on direct observation rather than indirect information (like informal student opinion), makes for more reliable evaluation.

The use of course syllabi or examinations and of grade distributions is also fairly frequent in junior colleges as compared with other types of colleges. Another significant difference, the use by junior colleges of long-term follow-up studies of students, probably reflects concern with the transfer problem. However, systematic student ratings are not heavily used at any type of college. If this indicates lack of concern with students then junior colleges stand no better than any of the other undergraduate institutions.

An Important Difference

The most important difference between the junior colleges and the other seven types of institutions lies in the consideration given to research and publication in evaluating teaching ability. Thus, in the university colleges particularly, the separate criteria of classroom teaching and of scholarly research and publication tend to be confused when an attempt is made to judge teaching. This reliance on the teacher's scholarly research as a source of information about his classroom behavior increases the importance of research and publication.

But these findings do not give the junior colleges reason to feel complacent. Since they do not use research and publication as a criteria for evaluating faculty, classroom teaching becomes proportionately more important. Therefore, it is to be expected that junior colleges will make better use of various sources of evaluative information about classroom performance. Although, in general, they rely more heavily on classroom visits, course syllabi and examinations, and grade distributions than do the other seven types of institutions, these sources are used by only a minority of junior colleges. The point that must be pondered is: Why aren't more junior colleges using direct sources of information to evaluate classroom teaching? Do instructional staffs resist on the often-cited grounds that classroom visits constitute an intrusion into the teacher's castle? Are administrators hesitant because they fear that these methods might be considered an invasion of privacy? Or do educators feel that none of these methods are particularly accurate and that some are entirely subjective?

An Opportunity That Will Not Last

Each of these arguments may contain some truth, but therein lies the challenge. Compared with other institutions of higher education, junior colleges stand in a much better position to make advances in the evaluation of teaching. Their traditions have not yet hardened to the point that classroom visitation is considered an infringement of academic freedom. As long as junior colleges continue to draw much of their faculty from high school teaching and industry rather than from college teaching, the idea of supervision and evaluation will not seem as repugnant as it might otherwise. Nor do teachers fresh out of graduate school view supervision and evaluation with alarm. Indeed the complaint of most new teachers is that there is a lack of guidance and of criteria for improving classroom teaching.

But this state of affairs, which would seem to enhance teaching evaluation at junior colleges, will not last forever. Traditions will soon be established, and the influx of new faculty will be stabilized. In the meantime, therefore, an earnest effort must be made to improve methods of measuring the impact of the teacher on the student. Carefully planned systematic student questionnaires can offer an insight about this impact. Grade distributions can be significant in multisection courses that give departmental examinations if the instructor is made aware of the specific educational objectives of the course and if students are matched with indices of ability.

Although junior colleges pay more attention to the evaluation of classroom teaching and base rewards more on teaching performance than do teachers colleges, liberal arts colleges, or university colleges, they should not be self-satisfied. At stake is their integrity as institutions of teaching and learning. Leadership of the entire academic community is possible for any who wish to answer the question of whether classrooms are sacrosanct castles or laboratories for learning.

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[1] Astin, Alexander W., and Lee, Calvin, B. T. "Current Practices in the Evaluation and Training of College Teachers." *Educational Record:* 361-75; Summer 1966.

[2] *Ibid.* Table 4, p. 369.

[3] *Ibid.* Table 2, p. 365.

Meeting of Advisory Council

FACULTY PARTICIPATION: A CASE STUDY

Chester Pachucki

How Participation Is Organized At Chicago's Southeast Campus

By Chester Pachucki and Howard Gordon

No single issue is more important to junior college educators today than the nature of faculty participation in institutional governance.

It is my hope that the approach to faculty participation at the Southeast Campus, Chicago City College, may be of value to others attempting to cope with this problem.

First the context:

1. The Southeast Campus is one of eight campuses constituting the multicampus Chicago City College system. Obviously, the problems normal to the internal functioning of an organization are compounded by the problems associated with intercampus, center-branch relationships in a huge college of some 37,000 students.
2. The system is new, having been divested from the common school system only about a year ago. One must appreciate the problems attendant to its birth and the achievement of independence.
3. The system must also learn to cope with and adjust to a new organ recently incorporated into the body academic—the union, with all of the issues posed by this development.
4. Chicago City College also has an all-city Faculty Council, basically advisory to the chancellor (administrative head of the system), which functions in such areas as curriculum, educational policy, and physical facilities.
5. The Southeast Campus has a faculty consisting of some 140 full-time equivalent members, all of whom belong to the local Faculty Council.

The statements below represent official descriptions of institutional structures providing the framework within which faculty participation functions at the Southeast Campus.

Administrative Advisory Council

The Administrative Advisory Council of the Southeast Campus, Chicago City College, will consist of five members: the dean of the campus who will act as chairman, two faculty members chosen by the local Faculty Council, and two members appointed by the local administration. Each member with the exception of the dean will serve a one-year term.

As its title indicates, the purpose of the council will be to assist the dean in an advisory (consultative) capacity with regard to overall campus administration. The council will also provide an institutional means whereby the faculty and administration jointly will be afforded the opportunity to discuss and resolve common problems.

The council will meet at a regularly prescribed time, and meetings will be open to the entire faculty. Any member of the council will have the privilege of placing items on the agenda.

Council business, including resolutions, pertinent discussion, agenda, etc., will be communicated to the faculty after each meeting (whenever possible) in the *Newsletter*, the official publication of the council. The *Newsletter* will be prepared by members of the council who will serve as acting secretaries on a rotating basis.

At his discretion the dean shall submit to the Administrative Advisory Council for consultation, deliberation, and recommendation all those issues—legal, professional, and otherwise—which devolve upon the dean by virtue of his office, and all those decisions to which the dean shall be a party by virtue of his position. The Administrative Advisory Council will be the highest appellate body of the Southeast Campus to which an issue may be submitted for resolution in those areas over which the dean has jurisdiction.

Decisions of any group, committee, council, etc., advisory to the dean, may be submitted for discussion to the Administrative Advisory Council either by the dean or a council member.

Program Evaluation Committee

This committee consists of five members: three selected from the faculty and two from the administration. Two faculty members are elected by the faculty, and the third member is appointed by the administration. The dean of instruction serves as chairman of the committee. The duty of the committee is to advise the dean of the campus on the following:

1. Allocation of teaching divisions to individual departments
2. Review of class schedules in relation to the curricular offerings of the college, ability of the students, and their needs
3. Review of class offerings and recommendations for changes while registration is in progress.

The Budget Committee advises the dean of the campus on the allocation of local funds[1] among the departments, and aids in the preparation of the annual board budget as it pertains to "special accounts."

The Budget Committee consists of three members: two from the faculty and one from administration. The local Faculty Council nominates three faculty members other than department chairmen as candidates to this committee, of which two are selected by the administration. The dean of instruction serves as the chairman of the committee. The term of appointment for representatives of the faculty on this committee is two years.

The operation of the committee is as follows:

1. For local fund allocations, an open meeting is held to which all faculty are invited to present evidence. The Budget Committee hears departmental budget requests and allocates available local funds, subject to the dean's approval. The criteria for designation or priority in granting budget requests is the concurrence of the particular item or service requested by the department with the general objectives and needs of the college.
2. The chairmen of the departments are requested to list their needs as to supplies, equipment, and travel for the coming calendar year. The committee collates and reviews their requisitions prior to submission of said requests to the dean.

The Faculty Rank Committee is convened yearly for the purpose of making recommendations for promotion in rank of faculty members. It has been composed of six members chosen by the Faculty Council, though the dean of the campus, at his discretion, can select three of the six, and appoint three members of his own choosing. At the invitation of the committee, the dean may sit as a deliberating or silent member of the committee.

Recommendations are made on the basis of published criteria. In their deliberations the committee has access to personnel records and recommendations submitted by individual faculty members and department chairmen, as well as their own knowledge of their colleagues.

The committee recommends to the dean who in turn recommends to the chancellor. The chancellor presents his recommendations to the board.

The following procedure is recommended in making administrative appointments:

1. The dean will announce a vacancy in an administrative position.
2. The dean, other members of the administration, and all faculty members will be given an opportunity to suggest names for the post.
3. A committee consisting of the dean, two members appointed by the Administrative Advisory Council, and two members of the executive committee of the Faculty Council (other than the president)

shall consider the nomination. This committee shall be advised by any other administrative officer directly supervisory to the post under consideration. The committee will thoroughly discuss all candidates, interview candidates if desired, and ultimately recommend at least three persons to fill the post.

4. The Faculty Council shall discuss the committee's recommendations. The Faculty Council can do one of two things: it can narrow the list to two of the candidates recommended by the committee and add one candidate of its own choosing; or it can make an evaluation with respect to the original recommendations of the committee.

5. The dean will then make a formal appointment to fill the post under consideration.

General Considerations

To avoid any misconceptions, it should be reiterated that the bodies described here are formally advisory in nature.

Above committees (with the exception of the Rank Committee) were organized originally by administrative invitation. These organizations are not the products of discord or crisis. In their inception and current operation they reflect a rational approach and constructive attitude toward meeting problems of common concern.

Now, some considerations, general and theoretical, of what appear to be fundamental issues underlying the concept of faculty participation:

Obviously the term faculty participation is subject to a variety of interpretations and connotations including such things as informal discussion, various types of faculty senates, etc.

Essentially, however, what we are talking about is faculty power or authority to make and implement binding decisions as institutional policy.

Assuming that institutional policy formulation and implementation traditionally have been the function and prerogative of administration and that conceivably faculty participation could mean faculty assumption of these roles, then it is theoretically possible that under such circumstances the faculty would have replaced the administration, and we might be discussing some sort of "administrative participation."

Political Concepts

Realistically, we are discussing the governance of our educational institutions. Thus we enter the province of the political theorist and consequently must examine certain of his concepts like democracy, authority, and responsibility.

From a general societal perspective one might quite accurately describe the governing of public education in the United States in the following manner:

Boards of education, selected ultimately in some manner by the public and thereby legitimately democratic, are entrusted with authority, some of which is delegated to administrators, who along with their boards are responsible and accountable for policy to those who have selected them. Within this conventional framework, faculty demands for decision-making power require that authority be granted without a concomitant responsibility, as that term is generally understood.

The very real question presents itself as to the nature of faculty responsibility were the faculty to be entrusted with authority.

It is not difficult to provide a rationale for faculty participation or authority. It is justifiable on the grounds of professional competence, and on the psychological premise that good teaching might better be assured were teachers involved in determining, and identified with, the policies so directly affecting them; and on the basis of self-interest, equity demands that those affected by policy be a party to its determination.

On the other hand, I recall an interesting comment in an article in the *Junior College Journal*[2] citing findings to the effect that decisions or policy implementation were none the better when faculty did participate.

In the final analysis, faculty participation will become faculty authority when and if those presently in command, namely the boards of education and the public, are persuaded, in one way or another, to relinquish or delegate to the faculty that which they now control.

A further question must also be resolved: what price is the faculty willing to pay for shared authority?

Are they to accept the consequence of responsibility in the role of decision maker?

Are they willing to give up tenure and work at the sufferance of the board?

Are they willing to give up automatic annual increments and accompanying promotions?

Are they willing to give up the 12-hour work load?

We are presently confronted with a dichotomy: shared authority without commensurate accountability. There must be realization, by all concerned, that one is inseparable from the other.

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[1] "Local funds" refers to revenue obtained exclusively from student fees. The Chicago City College is a tuition-free institution.

[2] Honer, Stanley M. "Faculty Power and Participation." *Junior College Journal* 36:31; February 1966. Quoting Hathaway, Dale E. "What Is the Responsibility of the Faculty in Institutional Long-Range Planning?" *Current Issues in Higher Education.* Washington, D.C.: Association for Higher Education, 1960. pp. 125-26.

By Eileen P. Kuhns

Part-Time FACULTY

Dr. Webb is a quiet, scholarly man about whom we have had more compliments from students than any other full- or part-time teacher. He is so well informed and his intellectual integrity so obvious that you can hear a pin drop in his classes.

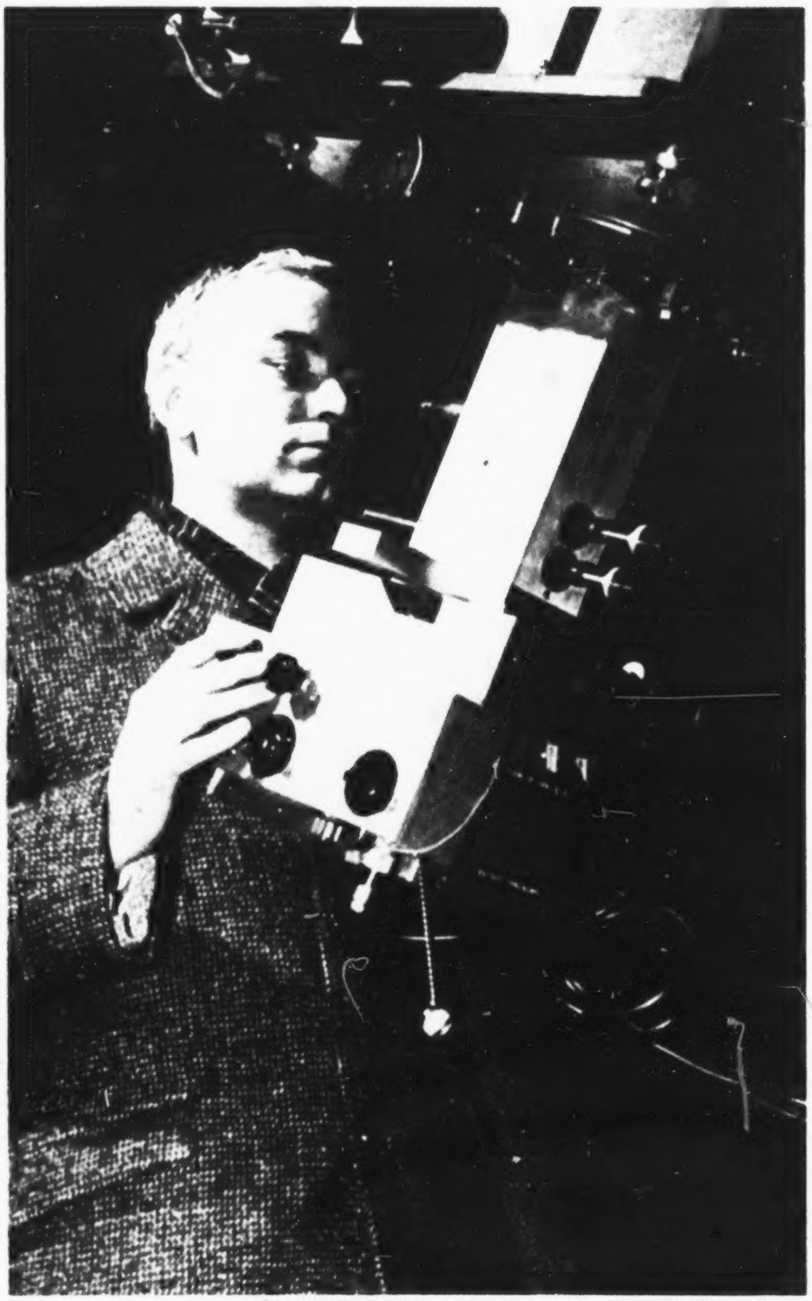
These are the glowing words used by Paul Trovillo, coordinator of the Evening Division at St. Petersburg Junior College, to describe part-time faculty member Dr. Marvin W. Webb, chief clinical psychologist at Bay Pines Veterans Hospital near the college. Dr. Webb has taught classes at the college for six years, in applied psychology, personality development, logic, philosophy, and ethics. In his spare time, Dr. Webb carries on special consultant research for private industry and does a limited amount of private counseling. According to Mr. Trovillo, his current projects are involved with studies of sleep and extrasensory perception, both of which are on the research agenda of electronics firms needing advanced data for the man-in-space programs.

Across the nation positions held by part-time faculty members represent a broad cross-section of business and professional life: construction management engineer, radio advertising salesman, social worker, superintendent of boys' training school, staff artist, naval astronomer, physicist, research chemist, insurance analyst, supervisor of instrumental music, operation analyst, aero-space technologist, ICC attorney-advisor, chief statistician, NIMH educational specialist, applied mathematician, research scientist, merchandise manager, internal revenue special agent, economist, personnel director, homemaker, biological oceanographer, chemical research chief. Their biographic records show a liberal sprinkling of Phi Beta Kappa, Sigma Xi, and other honorary memberships, as well as numerous advanced degrees.

Dr. Marvin W. Webb

Augustin J. deRojas

Kenneth G. Crothers


Charles E. Worley, astronomer at U. S. Naval Observatory

Venus 0.8
Earth-Moon 1.0
Mars 0.1
318
95
15
18
?

Teaching at Montgomery Junior College

American junior colleges would be hard-pressed to offer the wealth and variety of programs currently available were it not for the dedicated instruction provided by hundreds of part-time faculty members. The proportion of part- to full-time faculty is almost one to one in many colleges. Typically, the majority of part-time instructors teach in the evening division, where they usually outnumber full-time instructors. The reverse may be true during the day, with only an occasional part-time person filling in when the number of full-time teachers is insufficient for the enrollment.

The different functions part-time teachers perform explain this imbalance in the day and evening. Evening division teachers often are added to the staff because of highly specialized technical or business knowledge they possess. During the day they are busy applying that knowledge in their regular jobs, leaving free only their evenings for college instruction. Occasionally one of these highly skilled persons can be released from his job to take an early morning or a late afternoon class, but of necessity most part-time faculty members who teach during the day are housewives or other individuals less tied to another time clock.

It should be noted that from this latter group come some very effective teachers. Many community colleges are located in areas employing large numbers of men with advanced degrees. Various studies show that "like attracts like" in terms of factors such as achieved education. A husband with a doctor's degree may well have a wife with at least a master's degree. Since his career usually comes first, she may have left a good job to follow him. When children are added to home responsibilities, she may not have time for a full-time position, yet may feel like "climbing the walls" after a steady diet of diapers, TV, bridge, and PTA committee work. Her employment on a part-time basis can be a happy solution for the understaffed English department and for her own lack of intellectual stimulation. Because it is a diversion, she may pour a level of creative energy into the one or two sections which would be diluted were she teaching a full load, combined with managing home and family.

Dr. Mary Clawson, who teaches history and political science at Montgomery Junior College, brings to her classrooms the added advantage of years spent abroad while accompanying her husband. Her enthusiasm is contagious, her genuine interest in the students obvious. She worries when some of her students have difficulty in written examinations; she invites them to her home for the evening when the extension center where her class meets is closed for one reason or another. When she must be absent due to a long-standing lecture commitment, she has her well-qualified husband "cover" for her, adding, "When he lectures anywhere else he gets $200 a night!

Part-time teachers bring zeal to their assignments. Absenteeism, for example, does not seem to be a problem. However, part-time evening faculty, with their primary employment elsewhere, sometimes are subject to temporary travel assignments. This may involve meetings around the country or even in Europe. Although they must go, these instructors are most conscientious about seeing that their classes proceed with minimum disadvantage to the students. They arrange for colleagues at work or at the college to teach their classes. Instructor substitution is not encouraged by administrators. On the other hand, unwillingness to allow for such emergencies, especially when the instructor takes it upon himself to ask permission and then to make all the arrangements, could mean that no individual of sufficiently high level to be given such travel assignments could be considered for a faculty position. And this would constitute a real loss.

How could a man like Kenneth G. Crothers, for example, who teaches part time at Henry Ford Community College, be replaced? He teaches statistics, based on a background of 12 years in management assignments at Ford Motor Company. He is now industrial relations programs administrator for the Glass and Chemical Products Division at Ford.

Dr. Fred Sutton, work coordinator of the management training program at Henry Ford Community College, completed his doctoral research and dissertation on the topic of the part-time teacher. He has this to say:

The quality of their teaching is just as good as, if possibly not better than, our regular teachers. They do bring to the job a variety of practical experiences to vitalize the interpretation of the theory. The implementation of theory to their work situation does create a higher student interest.

The majority of full-time teachers do not have practical work experience in these newly developing theory areas. For example, we offer courses in the areas of data processing, process engineering, engineering statistics, gage design, spectroscopy, dynamometer instrumentation and engineering design courses that are not as yet established in regular college curriculums but which are needed by men in these specialty areas or by men who desire to upgrade themselves into these new course areas.

Similarly, Mr. Trovillo, from St. Petersburg Junior College, says:

These teachers may well show an ability to relate academic material to the work-day world, and to put such material into language which is readily understood. Part-time teachers are apt to use more concrete and specific terminology and approaches than are teachers who have little experience in business.

Enthusiasm for the subject seems much more prevalent among vocationally qualified people, who want to teach part time, than among professional teachers.

In the technical and vocational areas, the employment of faculty to teach highly specialized courses on a full-time basis may be the less satisfactory arrangement, if indeed such persons could be persuaded into the teaching profession. James D. Park, president of Olympic College, says:

The regular staff could not provide the services needed in the specialized courses. In these, the part-time instructors bring, besides their vocational or management experience, a considerable prestige to the college, interpretations essential to the specific applications made of the subject matter taught in the service-oriented industry, and a degree of community interest and inter-relatedness unequalled in many other situations.

The prestige factor which President Park mentions is a two-way street: part-time instructors may bring distinction to the college they serve, but in addition others bask in the reflected light of the institution with which they are affiliated. He says, "The prestige means something to most of them." Teaching may bring the fulfillment and recognition for which they feel a need, especially if their day-to-day job is deficient in these respects.

Mr. Cyrus Heiman, chief of the Soldier Shows Section of the Department of the Army, and an evening division speech teacher at Montgomery Junior College, says, "It's good for the teachers. We get away from the rut of our jobs. It's a change, a catharsis—relaxing." Mr. Heiman is one of the peripatetic professors mentioned above. His government job this fall took him to Europe for a brief judging assignment. His substitute arrangements were made weeks in advance, and such travel experience can be expected to enrich his performance as a teacher.

Dr. Sutton, at Henry Ford Community College, says:

Many of the part-time teachers are encouraged by their supervisors. It becomes a broadening experience for them and it helps them to keep in contact with people, in working with groups of people, in developing communications skills and communications techniques that are a valuable asset on their full-time job as well as to keep them in touch with the theory and new developments in their specialty.

Income seems to be a secondary consideration, according to Dr. Sutton. "Even though the desire for the extra income is important, this in itself is usually not their only or strongest motivation for teaching." President Park says, "Few do it for the money involved, although this is a factor." Some instructors feel a community responsibility to teach when asked, even at some inconvenience to themselves.

The desirability of choosing a second career because of approaching retirement at a relatively young age produces some applicants for part-time teaching positions. If both the college and the instructor are satisfied with initial results, a full-time appointment may be forthcoming when the man actually retires. More generally, part-time employment gives department chairmen and college administrators an unequalled opportunity to observe at first hand the teaching ability of a potential full-time instructor.

Concerning retirees as part-time instructors, Mr. Trovillo says:

Outstanding local people, sometimes retired, can be drawn into the teaching program, and their exceptional talents used to strengthen the college curriculum. They have reputations as experts; may be former authorities, top-management or sales people, or doctors and professional personnel interested in teaching only part time.

Providing superior instruction in a variety of foreign languages constitutes a perennial problem for many community colleges of medium or small size. The use of part-time instructors who are native speakers provides a satisfactory solution, although local or state codes sometimes prohibit their employment if they are not U. S. citizens.

Dr. Augustin J. deRojas, a language instructor at Orange County Community College, was active in the underground resistance movement and was forced to flee Cuba under political asylum and a safe conduct pass arranged by our State Department and the Argentine Embassy. Harold E. Shively, director of the Evening and Extension Division, describes Dr. deRojas as an outstanding teacher. According to Mr. Shively, his prior experience included not only teaching in Cuba but also management positions in a variety of industrial situations.

Part-time instructors fill a real and continuing need in technical, engineering, industrial, and some business areas. Although widely differing in content, together these areas constitute what might be called the "applied" offerings of a community college. In each case, skill of some sort, as well as knowledge, is required. The high and scarce level of ability necessary translates itself into economic demand. Consequently, even if enough classes were to be offered in a highly specialized area to warrant the appointment of a full-time teacher, such a person might lie beyond the financial reach of the community college. In some of these applied fields, then, the employment of part-time personnel may be a *first-choice* arrangement decided on by college administrators.

The traditional academic fields present a rather different picture. Here the employment of part-time faculty may be a *second-choice* arrangement, to be terminated as soon as enrollment and other conditions make feasible the hiring of a full-time person.

Dr. William G. Dwyer, president of Orange County Community College, says:

Our day division employs only four part-time instructors and 77 full-time . . . one is a Ph.D. in charge of a research laboratory and teaches an advanced biology course for us . . . three have had previous experience in their respective fields and two have master's degrees; a third is in charge of some biology labs, and all are located in our area because this is where their husbands live. Our experience to date has been most satisfactory, but by way of general policy we replace one or more part-time people whenever the combined responsibilities are sufficient to warrant employment of such a person.

Employment of part-time faculty, although distinctly satisfactory and efficient in most cases, is not without its problems. For example, occasionally a part-time faculty member will feel that administrative deadlines (for such things as midterm grades) are surely meant for others but not for him, and by his tardiness will hold up the registrar's orderly procedures for hours or days.

Robert E. Horton, dean of Educational Services at Los Angeles City College, says that some part-time teachers are not on campus enough to become fully identified with the college, and that sometimes communication with them is difficult.

Dr. Sutton of Henry Ford Community College comments, "One drawback in some specialty areas is that qualified teachers are hard to get and retain because they are too busy in their regular work activity."

Whether or not teaching in a secondary school (and the mastering of prerequisite education courses) constitutes a satisfactory background for the part-time college instructor seems to be an open question.

There are also indications that some are inclined to pitch their instruction too low for the college level and require less work than college students can and should be expected to perform. This is logical and natural if they are secondary school instructors in their full-time employment.

Another detractor is that teachers drawn from outside the regular full-time teaching staff may have had no professional education courses and may, therefore, lack knowledge about successful teaching techniques. They may be extremely well informed in their fields, but may be unable to appraise the needs and abilities of students.

Mr. Shively, from Orange County Community College, says:

We experience some difficulty from time to time with our full-time people who are used to working with teenagers and who sometimes find the transition to adult teaching difficult. When these occasions occur we work with the instructor on an individual basis.

The student group that the evening part-time instructor teaches is often an atypical one, often including a large proportion of adults who themselves are employed elsewhere during the day. Adults may feel more secure with an instructor whose primary affiliation is with the workaday world. George Bernard Shaw's famous quotation, "He who can does; he who cannot teaches," still has its adherents.

Says Dr. Sutton of Henry Ford Community College:

Many students have indicated to us that they do like the part-time teachers from industry especially if the students themselves are in business and industry. They do prefer these part-time teachers because they feel that the teacher does have a closer contact with business and industrial problems and does help to relate the theory to practice very suc-

cessfully. In some of the regular academic areas, this feature may not be important, but for the technical, engineering, business, and management area it is highly important to the student.

Mr. Shively, from Orange County Community College, adds:

Practical experience which the part-time instructor may bring to the classroom is one of his most valuable assets. We find many of our adults being helped with their immediate problems by part-time instructors who have been through similar situations . . . many part-time faculty members in the business world go out of their way to assist students in job changes, securing employment, etc.

Their part-time evening instructor is the only contact many students have with the college. Thus his familiarity with college philosophy, rules and procedures becomes doubly important in order that he may serve in the role of informal counselor on occasion. Accurate knowledge about matters such as graduation requirements, final withdrawal dates, absence rules, etc., is essential.

Colleges orient part-time faculty in diverse ways. Orange County Community College, for example, does not have an in-service training program, and need for one as of this date is apparently not felt. When part-time instructors are hired, they are thoroughly indoctrinated in such matters as the philosophy of the college, the content of the course, and administrative responsibility as well as teaching responsibility. Teaching techniques which are helpful for those who work with adults are extensively reviewed.

At Montgomery Junior College, the entire faculty gathers twice a year for an All-Faculty Conference, one function of which is to provide information about the college to part-time instructors. This year for the first time *all* faculty members received a loose-leaf "Faculty Handbook," containing academic regulations, a guide to faculty responsibility week by week, a student personnel manual, and an alphabetically arranged description of every aspect of campus life which a faculty committee felt might be useful. These handbooks must be checked in at the close of each academic year in order that they may be revised for the coming fall. Departmental meetings for both full- and part-time faculty are another feature of these Saturday conferences, which are scheduled yearly as a part of the official college calendar.

Especially if a college is not large, a long series of "unwritten rules" may govern much of a college's operation, especially a small college. Part-time faculty members need guidance in such matters, or they may stumble unknowingly into errors and problems. For example, is instruction in evening courses expected to be at the same level as instruction in day classes—or do these constitute the dumping ground? Is it necessary that final grades for each class show a given percentage of each letter grade, or is the instructor free to give a high proportion of F's or A's if either seems appropriate? Is it college policy to flunk students who can't write a decent paragraph despite knowledge of course content demonstrated orally? What about the "lower quarter" students—shall they be used to make up an instructor's quota of F's, or is it expected that the part-time instructor will see such students privately to assist them with both content and motivation? Some of these areas perhaps involve skeletons in community college closets better left undiscussed. But certainly the part-time instructor must be aware of the unwritten rules.

Part-time faculty members have their difficulties, just as do their employing institutions. To begin the semester, most part-time instructors agree to teach on a very tentative basis, since their classes are subject to cancellation should enrollment be insufficient. This disappointing news may come several registrations in a row. Their salary often is considerably less than the *pro rata* equivalent of their full-time colleagues, in part because they neither advise students on a sustained basis, nor serve on committees. If they are teaching in the evening, they may find bookstore, library, student personnel, and other services unavailable to them. They may feel isolated from the ongoing college life, as well as from their fellow evening instructors unless steps are taken to alleviate this situation.

Education in the community college must prepare students not only for the present but for the veiled future as well. By virtue of their full-time occupations, many of these part-time faculty members are able to make invaluable contributions to students. In the long run, however, it is the student who must learn, and the student who must be motivated to learn. If the part-time sociology teacher—full-time occupation, housewife—is able to light this fire, her contribution will be as great and as lasting as that of the nuclear physicist who gives his students the scientific keys to tomorrow.

Information received from administrative officers at the several community colleges mentioned herein is gratefully acknowledged.

Notes On Producing A Scholarly Journal

American River College in California Publishes Its Own Faculty Journal —And Shares Some Lessons Learned

By Kenneth D. Boettcher

Publication of faculty journals is an activity traditionally reserved to universities and four-year colleges, where faculty members are under pressure to engage in research and where funds are made available to support the common-law rule of publish or perish.

But traditions are toppling all over in higher education, and it seemed to the Research and Development Committee at American River College that perhaps it was time to challenge another one. (This committee functions something like a freewheeling "think tank," refusing to restrict its attention to the customary areas of plant and curriculum development.) The group recommended that the college underwrite trial publication of a faculty-written, faculty-edited, and faculty-produced professional journal.

After all, the rationale went, most junior colleges publish magazines for creative student writing; why not a scholarly journal produced by and for faculty? A junior college, the committee pointed out, represents many interests and many talents, and its faculty members may have things to say that would be of interest and value to their community, their colleagues, and to other junior colleges.

Administrative approval was eventually given, with some trepidation, to the proposal. We envisioned it as an opportunity to encourage the professional growth of our faculty and to enrich the school's intellectual environment. We recognized its potential for community service. (We also recognized that it might fall flat on its face.)

Since the junior college exists primarily to serve the local community, we reasoned, the proposed journal should attempt to reflect that function. It should not in any sense be a "little" *Psychological Review*, or a "little" *Atlantic Monthly*, or a "little" entertaining writing. It would serve as a sounding board for junior college faculty concerns. Thought-provoking articles would be directed to the solution of local and regional problems. Finally, the journal would be one way to fill the publications gap that exists for junior college teachers, the majority of whom are called neither "Doctor" nor "Professor."

Since the subject matter of a faculty journal might range over the whole vast arena of junior college interests, we could not predict the size of its "public." There would probably be a certain stable nucleus of readers including the college staff, local news media, the state library, and other junior colleges. We decided on an initial press run of about 500. (This turned out to be not enough. We have been unable to meet requests for copies.)

A faculty subcommittee worked out guidelines and ground rules, and these were presented at a faculty meeting. A "call for papers" was issued.

The new publication, it was decided, would carry a consistent cover design from issue to issue, with minor variations appropriate to the major emphasis of a given issue. This project was not viewed as a one-shot phenomenon. We were launching an historic new venture to take its place among other "instant traditions" of the junior college, one that would grow and flourish with the years.

Editorially, the journal would try for a tone that was adult, original, independent. The lead articles in each volume would focus on a particular theme, which might be a topical issue of regional or academic interest, or perhaps simply an abstraction. No limits were placed on length or subject matter of contributions. Faculty members could submit condensations or reprints of materials they had already published. Primary contributors would be A.R.C. faculty, but others might on occasion be invited to contribute. Controversial subjects would not be deliberately pursued but neither would they be avoided.

Editorial Board

The subcommittee recommended formation of a representative editorial board which would have broad discretionary powers to (1) edit and suggest modifications in material accepted for publication; (2) refer controversial articles to outside authorities for comment and/or criticism; (3) solicit manuscripts; and (4) ultimately accept or reject material for publication.

The publication came out—a bit behind schedule, forty pages long, and carrying a large and optimistic "Volume 1, Number 1" on the cover. Predictably, the humanities faculty—philosophers, artists, poets—responded most readily to the call for papers, and the first volume was built on issues of particular concern to them. The contents reflected their views on contemporary questions involving academic freedom; the status of junior college teachers and students in the academic hierarchy; the nature of creativity; and the changing relations among faculty, students, governing boards, and public.

Change of pace was provided by original poems, including a few that had been previously published in various esoteric magazines, and some sensitive translations of the poetry of Mexican poet-diplomat Octavio Paz. Black and white photographs were made of a faculty artist's work which focused on "the formal elegance of common images that surround us."

It cannot honestly be said that the new publication struck with resounding impact upon a waiting world. But its appearance was noted with respect by press and radio, and congratulations have come in from other junior colleges and small four-year colleges. A suggestion has been made that a junior college faculty journal might be a good project for cooperative effort, with a group of colleges joining together to support a regional journal. We feel this idea has genuine merit. But for anyone who might consider going it alone, as we did, the following observations are offered, based on our own pilot experience.

Five Observations

1. Be very clear about the purposes of your journal, and the objectives which it is meant to achieve. Take pains to reach solid faculty-administration accord on these purposes. Any publishing effort involves the egos of many people; advance planning can prevent side-effects like interdivisional jealousies, or embarrassment over criticism from off-campus extremists, or—and this is not at all unlikely—fears that your faculty is being "pressured into publishing."

2. Select your editorial board with extreme care. Either staff it with persons who have had professional editing experience on magazines or newspapers, or let it represent a genuine cross-section of the disciplines and special interests of the college. Avoid "weighting" the board. Faculty departments tend to get ingrown and overspecialized. An English instructor who reads a poorly constructed account of an original piece of research might reject it out of hand, whereas someone else might recognize unique substantive merit in the report and be willing to help the writer whip it into adequate literary shape. The point is, if the editorial board has an imbalance, your journal will reflect that imbalance.

Editorial board members Jean Pratt and Robert Frank hold an after-class session to select art for the journal.

3. College instructors probably rank second only to opera singers as bona fide prima donnas. Our creative efforts must be treated with respect. We wound easily. Since a local junior college journal is almost certain to be produced by persons without much experience in publishing, you must expect screams of outrage from authors whose solecisms are deleted, whose commas are rearranged, whose very syntax may be tampered with in the editing process.

4. Find a tough-minded, experienced editor-in-chief and see that he is given adequate authority over the product. Contributors should agree in advance to accept his final decision in any disagreement over editing. (The best person for this job might be someone who doesn't need love, since good editors are rarely beloved. They choose excellence over popularity, any time.)

5. Be prepared for the fact that the cost of your publication will be somewhat greater than the original estimate. While inflation is predictable, its exact toll is not.

Number 2 Is Scheduled

As for the *American River Journal,* will there be a Volume 1, Number 2?

Yes, we are already working on it, despite the traumas generated by Number 1.

Our next issue, scheduled for spring 1968, will focus on the natural and social sciences. We will seek out original papers from some highly productive anthropologists, bird-watchers, biologist-sailors, and others on the staff of American River College.

OPEN-DOOR COLLEGE OR OPEN-DOOR CURRICULUMS?

A Plea for Selective Placement

By John E. Roueche and David M. Sims

For the past two decades, the community junior college has been called "democracy's college." Junior colleges stress that institutional goals are closely tied to the principle that each individual should have the opportunity to progress as far as his interests and abilities will permit. It has been emphasized that anyone who can profit from a college education should have a chance to acquire it. While this concept does not imply that everyone should have the same education, it does demand diversified education and a commitment to the "open-door" concept for admission to the junior college. As Burton Clark emphasized in his book, *The Open-Door College*, "The open-door outlook is generally extended in junior colleges to the belief that the incoming student should also have unrestricted choice in selecting a field of study."

One of the first programs offered in a new junior college is the traditional college transfer curriculum. Most students entering the junior college indicate a preference for the college transfer program. Two-thirds to three-fourths of the students who enter our junior colleges announce that they intend to transfer to senior institutions although, in actuality, fewer than one-third continue their formal education beyond junior college graduation. Yet, many college administrators feel they cannot deny access to the transfer curriculum, regardless of the college potential of the student. An unobstructed choice of program has become a part of the "open-door" policy.

In junior colleges there now exists the ludicrous situation of students enrolling in programs and working toward educational goals for which they are unqualified. These students make heavy demands upon their instructors and impede the progress of their fellow students. Often these same students are qualified for other programs offered in the same college.

At a recent educational conference, a junior college president stressed that the right to fail is a student's right in a democracy. On the other hand, in a speech to the Student Services Personnel Association of North Carolina, Raymond Schultz, of Florida State University, stressed that "the cliche that a student is entitled to the 'right to fail' smacks of professional irresponsibility. As professionals, our judgment must be better than the student's or we had better fold up our tent and quietly slip away." The high attrition rate in junior college transfer programs has led critics to label the "open door" as merely the "revolving door."

Salvaging Institution

It is often argued that the junior college is a "salvaging" institution. By law, this function has been assigned to the junior college since, in most states, it must admit all high school graduates and adults who seek admission. Regardless of the student's declared educational goals, this legal responsibility is an awesome burden on the junior college. It demands a diversity of educational offerings to facilitate the diversity of talents and abilities of those students entering the junior college. Most important, it demands "selective placement" of students in programs and curriculums that are congruent with their talents and educational backgrounds. It must be emphasized that selective placement is an empty term unless the junior college can offer the needed range of curricular offerings. Diverse educational offerings are a prerequisite to any selective placement procedure.

In *The Open-Door College*, Burton Clark identified what he labels as the "cooling out" function of the junior college, a term he borrowed from gambling or, more accurately, the confidence game. The confidence man, having fleeced a victim, must occasionally face the responsibility of allowing the victim to examine the reality of his situation. Clark uses this term to suggest that the junior college has somewhat the same responsibility to its students—a responsibility to assist them in facing the reality of the situation in which they often find themselves.

It is true that in the junior college a student does not definitely fail but rather may simply transfer to a terminal program more commensurate with his abilities and talents. The "cooling out" function will always have a place in the junior college as students redefine their educational objectives and reassess their individual abilities. This function, however, could be greatly diminished in scope if only the junior college would assume the *major* role in assessing at the beginning of their educational experience the appropriate qualifications of students to enter certain programs and courses.

Awareness of Opportunities

Some students come to the junior college with lofty ambitions, planning to enter engineering, medicine, or law—fields for which many are unqualified. This program is not peculiar to the junior college. It is, instead, indicative of the society in which we live. Parents, high school teachers, and counselors think of college in terms of a four-year program leading directly to the baccalaureate degree. Status and prestige are intangible by-products of a college degree; and parents, teachers, and counselors do not generally think in terms of programs not leading to the A.B. degree. The junior college has an obligation both to students who have made unrealistic career choices and to their parents and teachers.

The junior college must bring parents, teachers, and counselors to an awareness of the expanding opportunities in the nontransfer areas. The high school sends students to the junior college with whatever goals and aspirations they might have. The junior college must be concerned with articulation but not entirely with the four-year institutions. Junior colleges have been working toward improved articulation with senior institutions for more than thirty years but the *real* need for articulation is with the high schools which furnish students to the junior college. The junior college must assume the leadership in such articulation. Principals, teachers, and counselors need to be brought to the junior college campus. Technical and vocational programs, and the opportunities available to graduates of these programs, need to be presented.

At a recent high school articulation conference at Gaston College, high school teachers were amazed to learn that the average starting salary for graduates of the technical program was above $500 a month. High school counselors are now telling students about the opportunities available in electrical engineering technology—a field in which every graduate has numerous job offers.

Parents, too, are surprised to learn of the excellent opportunities available to graduates of occupational programs. Parental support is usually forthcoming when programs are explained in terms of economic supply and demand. This support, however, is not available unless the junior college takes the lead in explaining program offerings and opportunities. Since two-thirds of all junior college students do not transfer to senior institutions, the junior college must give emphasis to better articulation with high schools and the parents of prospective students.

With proper support from parents and high school personnel, the junior college can assume *major* responsibility for decisions both for what constitutes a realistic educational goal for the individual student and for getting the student to accept such a goal.

For those students with ability to enter either the college transfer program or the sophisticated engineering technician program, but with certain subject deficiencies, the idea of completing junior college in two years must be altered. A fetish has been developed over the "two-year" college. It may take some students three years or more to complete certain programs. With the heterogeneity found in a typical junior college, all students are not equally equipped to complete programs in the same length of time.

Remedial or developmental courses can be offered during the summer prior to the beginning of the fall term. Students can be persuaded to make up their educational deficiencies during the summer period if they are determined to complete junior college in two years. There are many possibilities in the scheduling of classes but time should not be a factor when the student's best interests are at stake.

Mortality Rate Too High

There is nothing wrong with the concept of the "open door." In a democracy, the goal is to educate each citizen to the highest level of his potential. Education is now a matter of national necessity. Individual resources are the nation's greatest reservoir in the continuing process of national development. This is not the issue. By law, junior colleges must admit high school graduates and adults but this does not imply that all students should be admitted to all programs. The junior college has an obligation to place students in programs in which the student has a good chance of succeeding and, conversely, to keep students out of programs in which they will probably fail.

The present mortality rate in college parallel programs is too high. The basis for admission to programs in a junior college is a professional decision that should be determined for each student by utilizing the best information available to educators.

TWO PLUS TWO

By Michael Brick

One of the many pressing issues facing educators today is the place of vocational and technical education in our schools and colleges. There is a general lack of understanding of technical education among young people and parents; and there is a need for better coordination among high schools, colleges, and industries.

The Center for Urban Education contracted with the New York State Department of Education to conduct a project which would result in a conference to bring high school and two-year college representatives together to discuss mutual problems. A prime concern was to identify techniques for working together, particularly in the articulation of the program offerings in the business, mechanical, and electrical technologies.

In order to collect data to supply the participants in the work conference held in October 1966, at the

An Analysis of How Selected Technology Programs in High Schools and in Two-Year Colleges of New York State Sought Ways to Initiate Articulation Procedures

Greyston Conference Center in Riverdale, New York, a questionnaire was sent to thirty-seven colleges and eighty-three high schools in New York State. The latter were chosen at random from a list of all high schools in New York State. Thirty-four two-year colleges responded for a return of 92 per cent and thirty-eight high schools responded for a return of 46 per cent.

Community College and High School Programs

Community colleges differ in their approach to the level of programs they offer. Some community colleges choose to offer only engineering technician curriculums and sometimes these are established at a level of rigor more nearly commensurate with the academic abilities of an "engineering" student than with those of a "technician" student. Such procedures are regrettable, for technical jobs are "middle level" jobs of semiprofessional status. Community colleges should offer technical education programs at both the engineering technology level as well as programs which prepare industrial technicians who can work in production, testing, and maintenance.

The high schools are also offering programs in vocational and technical education. Many of the technical educators in the high schools feel there is a place both for this kind of education in the high school and in two-year colleges. Advocates of technical education in the high school point out that these programs serve as an inducement for a great number of boys and girls to stay in school who might not be interested in a totally academic program and would drop out. In addition, vocational programs give the high school student a tremendous start on the road toward being a skilled and desirable person available for employment. The high school educator indicates that ideally he would like to see some type of orientation program in the tenth year, with specialization beginning at the eleventh and twelfth grades; and that the students continue their education for two years in appropriate programs offered by the community college.

In order to obtain specific data as to the amount of articulation existing between high schools and two-year colleges, the questionnaire was sent to the chairmen of the mechanical, electrical, and business technology departments. The questionnaire attempted to determine the types of students being served, the type of entry occupations for which high school and community college programs prepare, the general objectives of each program, and suggestions for improvement of programs. In addition a question was addressed to administrators asking them to indicate what articulation practices existed between high schools and two-year colleges and asking for suggestions for improvement.

Mechanical and Electrical Technologies

The mechanical technology program within the community college prepares students for immediate employment at the technician level. Some institutions indicate that their program prepares students with a basic, broad-based, mechanical background necessary for entry occupations in the wide spectrum of mechanical fields. A few institutions indicate that their aim is to produce high-level engineering technicians capable of working effectively with graduate engineers in research, design, and manufacturing. The various programs reflect the basic difference in thinking about technical education that exists among community colleges.

All of the eighteen two-year institutions that responded in regard to the mechanical program indicated that they required mathematics as a prerequisite to the program. Nine required two years of college preparatory mathematics; six require two and one-half years of mathematics; two require three years; and one strongly recommends three and one-half years. Eight have no science requirement; six require physics or chemistry; three require two years of science; and one strongly recommends physics. Fourteen institutions do not require any special test scores or special standing in the high school class for admission into the program; four have some specific requirement. A majority of the institutions indicate an open-door approach to the program.

None of the two-year colleges identifies the students in the program as being above average in academic ability. Fifteen indicate that their students are of average ability; three characterize their students as below average.

The entry jobs for which the student is prepared by the community college mechanical technology program vary widely. However, the two mentioned most often are engineer assisting and drafting. The others are sales, materials testing, machine design, quality control, technical writing, tool designing and junior metallurgy.

The department chairmen in the two-year college mechanical technology programs overwhelmingly suggested that the high schools need to do a better job in mathematics and English in preparing the students coming into the program. They also recommended that the level of shop and drawing instruction be upgraded. One chairman indicated that it was "better to have no background than the misinformation often provided under the heading of vocational training." There was general agreement that high school counselors should identify mechanically minded students, orient them toward mechanical technology as a fruitful field for study, and then see to it that the student received proper mathematics and science preparation. In addition, the following specific comments were made by many of the department chairmen:

1. Stop using the high school technical programs as dumping grounds for poorer students and then assuring these students with a weak mathematics and strong hardware background that they are ready for a good technical college program.
2. Eliminate the general diploma program.
3. Guidance counselors, school administrators, parents, and boards of education must be educated to the fact that career-oriented programs are respectable. It should be understood that the technologies are not less respectable than engineering programs. It is important to realize that the difference in programs is one of objective.

Electrical technology programs: The information in regard to the electronics program in the community college pretty much parallels that of the mechanical technology programs. The seventeen programs examined indicate that there is an emphasis on preparation in mathematics and physics as a requirement for admission into the program. The students are described as average and in the main have an academic background rather than a vocational background when they come into the electronics technology program.

High school programs: Analysis of the data indicated that there is a distinct difference between the vocational approach and the approach of the high schools who use the program as preparation for high-level technical careers. In the programs which are vocationally oriented the program is geared to the average and above average student. The vocationally oriented programs indicate that the majority of their students do not go on to any post-high school education. The technically oriented high schools indicate that most of the graduates of their electronics program and mechanical technology program transfer to professional engineering schools. Some do go on to two-year colleges, but the chairman of the departments state that the two-year colleges tend to duplicate the curriculum of the high school. The high school chairmen suggest the need for better articulation of programs and the possibility of advanced placement for high school graduates of the technology programs.

Business Technologies

Information was gathered in regard to two options within the business technology programs—secretarial and distributive education.

Secretarial programs: The community colleges prepare students for executive secretarial positions. More specifically the objectives of the program are: (a) to develop skills necessary for satisfactory performance on the job, (b) to give a fundamental knowledge of office procedures, systems, and machines, as well as a background in business theory and practice, and (c) to provide general education courses that will help the students' cultural development and encourage them to acquire the skills and attitudes necessary for responsible citizenship.

The high school program stresses the skills and job entry. Predominantly the objectives are to prepare students to obtain beginning positions as stenographers, typists, or clerks. The program also provides an opportunity to integrate desirable attitudes, essential skills, and to learn such things as good grooming, business ethics, and personality development.

Of the eighteen community college programs analyzed, only one indicated that there was a special requirement for admission to the program. Fifteen indicated no special tests were needed for entrance into the program. Most of the students were identified as being average in academic ability and fourteen of the department chairmen stated that they did not use the program to place students with low ability.

In their response to suggestions for changes in secondary school philosophy and practice, the community college secretarial department chairmen stressed a need for better preparation in English with emphasis on spelling and punctuation. Suggestions also included better preparation in study habits and study skills.

In examining the data from twenty-five high schools, the biggest difference between the community college and the high school programs has to do with the nature of the student in the program. Sixteen high schools indicated that low-ability students were placed in the program. Eleven high schools described their student body as average, eight as average to below average, and six indicated that the range varied from above average to below average.

In responding to suggested changes that two-year colleges might introduce, the high schools indicated that better communication and follow-up information sent to the high schools would be extremely helpful. In addition these comments:

> The two-year colleges should "grow up" and not try to outdo Harvard in entrance requirements. Why does a secretary need three years of a language and two years of mathematics? The two-year college should understand its own philosophy with respect to two-year vocational training in business areas, and graciously offer something to all pupils.

There is enough evidence from the returns that there is need for the establishment of closer liaison between the two-year colleges and the high schools to explore possibilities of working together on curriculum development.

Many high schools indicated that the only assistance the community college provided was to offer the high school student a one-day visit at the college in the spring. It is imperative that the high school knows exactly what the college wants and that the latter knows what the high school is doing. Several high schools indicated that the marginal student is finding college difficult.

Distributive education programs: The community college programs which are usually called marketing or retail business management, prepare young men and women to become competent professional managerial personnel in retailing. A few of the community colleges indicated that between 30 to 40 per cent of their graduates go on to earn their baccalaureate degrees in business administration. The curriculum is designed to provide a solid foundation in marketing courses, business courses, general studies, and work experience.

Of the eleven community college programs analyzed, eight indicated that there were no special admission requirements. Eight institutions also characterized their students as average in academic ability while two indicated that their student body ranged from average to below average. Ten of the institutions stated that they did not place low-ability students in their retailing program.

Most of the high school students in this program have an academic or vocational background, however a large number of students in the program come from general high school programs. Most of the two-year colleges indicated that the specific courses in distributive education at the high school level did not seem to give the student any advantage in the college marketing programs. The colleges indicated a preference for students who could express themselves well and do basic mathematics. The two-year institutions all indicated that they found their present students deficient in English, mathematics, and speech. There was almost unanimous agreement that the high schools should not use distributive education as a dumping ground for students with low or limited abilities.

Twenty-two of the twenty-three high school programs analyzed, indicated that the program is used to place low-ability students. The high school program prepares students for entry as stock clerks, sales clerks, or other sales positions in stores. None of the high schools mentioned mid-management or any managerial aims for their program. In addition many of the high schools indicated that the majority of their students in the program will not go on to any college.

Improved Articulation Practices

Recent developments in electronics, space, and related fields have brought into sharper focus the almost critical shortage of trained technicians. We have been preoccupied with the training of professionals—engineers, physicists, mathematicians, and scientists of all sorts. Now we see that in the performance of professional services teams of trained personnel are needed—a team that includes the scientist, the engineer, and the technician. By combining their skills the usefulness and productivity of each is enhanced and extended.

Many questions are raised, however, as one begins to try to define the programs, identify the students to be served, and indicate the institutions to be involved in the technology programs. Interwoven with general education is technical education beyond the high school and it ought to be a major concern of the community college. The question remains, however, at what level should these programs be developed. A related question is: What is the role of the high school in technical education?

The analysis indicated that there was a great deal of misunderstanding by both institutions as to the work each was doing and also that no effort was being made to attempt to develop coordinated programs in mechanical, electronics, and business technology programs between high schools and community colleges.

Present practices: The chief administrative officers of two-year colleges were asked to respond to the question, "What are some ways in which your college and the high schools are at present carrying out articulation activities in business and engineering-related technologies?" Of the twenty-five institutions responding, the principal activities carried out were high school visitations by community college admissions officers and faculty members and mailing of printed material such as brochures and catalogs to the high schools. Other practices that were identified are:

1. In some institutions faculties in the various disciplines meet occasionally with their counterparts

in the high schools. None of this was on any formal or organized basis.

2. A monthly newsletter was sent by the college admissions office to high school counselors.

3. A few colleges report back to the high schools on the progress of their students at the college.

4. One college indicated that senior students in the high schools, with the approval of their principals, have been allowed to take a freshman course at the college in the field in which they hoped to specialize. These students have usually been brighter than average. The same college conducted a two-day program for economically deprived students in the hope that interest would be stimulated in the possibility of obtaining a college education.

5. Some of the City University of New York's two-year colleges are involved in a pilot pre-tech program. Students from local high schools are admitted to the two-year colleges and pursue an enriched curriculum in their assigned specialties, the curriculum having been devised by a study team consisting of a member of the college faculty and a member of the high school faculty.

6. The City University of New York's two-year colleges are involved with "Operation Bridgeheads" the function of which is to help high school students find out more about the community colleges.

Improved techniques: Despite the fact that much appears to be going on, many of the presidents and deans of two-year colleges feel that not enough articulation both in terms of quantity and quality is taking place at the present time.

In response to the question asking for suggestions for improved techniques in articulation, many of the respondees indicated that they have become aware of the need for more satisfactory procedures and have appointed study committees to work on this problem. More specific recommendations included the following:

1. Inclusion of high school teachers on advisory committees
2. Increased visitation between the faculty of the college and of the high school
3. Granting of credit by the district superintendent toward continuing certification or advancement for courses taken in technical education at the community college by high school teachers
4. Summer workshops in which two-year college faculty and high school teachers could work together
5. Establishment of joint curriculum committees in each technical field.

High school responses: Of the twenty-seven high school returns, the majority of the principals did not feel that very much was being done in the area of articulation. The one activity that seemed to predominate was college career nights with the community colleges sending representatives to the high school programs. In addition, the community colleges did share catalog and program materials. Seven of the high school principals indicated that there was no articulation between high schools and community colleges in the business and engineering-related technology programs.

The high school principals had several recommendations for improving articulation practices. Over half of the responses suggested that there be more frequent visits between faculty members of the high schools and the community colleges. The principals suggested that there be joint curriculum committees established as well as joint study groups to work on problems of mutual concern. One principal suggested that teachers be exchanged in the technology areas. Another suggestion which several principals expressed was that the community colleges send records of progress to the high schools. Advanced placement and increased permission for high school students to attend freshman courses at the community colleges was also recommended by the principals.

Conclusions

The research produced evidence that there is little being done to articulate the educational efforts of high schools and community colleges in the areas of business and engineering-related technologies. There is a good deal of misunderstanding among many high schools in regard to the work of the two-year colleges and among community colleges in regard to what high schools are attempting to do in vocational-technical education. In many instances there is wasteful duplication of effort as well as poor counseling on both levels as a result of lack of proper information.

One certainly can conclude that much research and continued planning has to be undertaken by both high school and community college educators working together in an attempt to answer some of the following questions:

1. How much duplication of effort is permissible?
2. How much liaison should there be between the community college and the feeder high schools in regard to course planning?
3. What should high schools and community colleges do to orient students before they enter the college?
4. Should there be planned coordinated curriculums for grades 9-14? If so, what should they be?
5. What immediate activities can be undertaken to improve articulation between high schools and community colleges in the areas of technical education?

ST NT CENTER & ARY

Ronald Hallstrom, dean of vocational-technical education at Rock Valley College in Illinois, shows a prospective student literature from one of the pamphlet racks which have been distributed throughout the college's district.

Three New Twists In Occupational Education

By Ronald W. Hallstrom

How Can You Generate Interest In Occupational Education? Here Are Some Ideas from a New College

At Rock Valley College in Rockford, Illinois, some new ideas for generating interest in occupational education are being used. And, they are proving to be successful.

Distribution of Information

Residents of the junior college district must be informed of the educational opportunities available to them. There are many ways of making the college offerings known, such as newspaper advertisements, television spots, radio announcements, printed materials, and other means.

Many junior colleges print brochures or other materials describing various curriculums and programs offered. Rock Valley College does too, and in this literature we concentrate on the vocational-technical curriculums available to students.

We struggled with the problem of how best to distribute information about the college and its programs so that residents and prospective students would have it available on a continuing basis. A number of distribution methods were considered, but traditional methods did not seem to be sufficient for what we wanted to accomplish. Finally, it was decided that one of the best methods would be to put the literature in places where people congregate. They could see the literature and become acquainted with the offerings of the community college. A display rack seemed to be the best solution to this problem.

In the beginning, finding a suitable display rack proved to be the biggest challenge. After a thorough search, it was found that ready-made racks were not available. So, one had to be designed. A number of alternate models were considered—ranging from pegboard to plywood to wire. Finally, we decided on a wire rack designed and manufactured by Commercial Wire Products of Rockford.

The rack is a counter-top revolving model which has thirty-two pockets, sixteen on each side. Each pocket measures 4¼ x 4¾ x 1¼ inches. The ends of the rack are closed off with signs that advertise the college. The rack was produced for $12.65 each. The design is such that it can be attached to a free standing base with four clips and screws. Each base costs $5.

The display racks have been a great help in disseminating information about the college to the community. Presently there are seventy-five of them throughout the district. They can be found in high schools, banks, discount stores, factories, gas stations, toll road plazas, public buildings, grocery stores, and a host of other places.

We receive many inquiries from prospective students who have taken literature from these racks, and we also have had applications from prospective instructors who were traveling through the district and saw the literature. One of our nursing instructors was hired from such a contact.

Career Advancement Program

For two years the enrollments in our technical education curriculums were negligible. One of the big problems was how to interest full-time students in these programs. Industry shared this concern with the college because in our district there is a shortage of qualified technicians, particularly engineering technicians.

Advisory committees are used extensively at Rock Valley College in organizing, developing, and conducting occupational curriculums. At a joint meeting of the mechanical technology and electronics advisory committees, a proposal was put before them:

Let's organize a cooperative work-study program in the fields of drafting, machine design, production technology, and electronics; and let's have industry assume the major responsibility for recruiting students.

The advisory committees endorsed the idea and responded with unanticipated enthusiasm. Committee members and college personnel worked out the preliminary details of the program and an invitation to participate was sent to all manufacturing firms in the district.

Initially, twenty-eight companies asked to participate. In a matter of a few weeks, that number grew to thirty-two. The thirty-two companies have requested a total of 167 trainees in the four technical majors for the coming academic year.

The magic of this cooperative effort has been this: the private industries in our district are putting their full resources behind the program. They have found an interest in which they stand to gain valuable employees who will be well-trained technicians in the years ahead. The industrial firms involved in the program realize that if the program is successful, it will help to solve a pending crisis in the shortage of technicians.

The cooperating companies have done a number of things to recruit students. Each company that joins the Career Advancement Program pays the college a fee of $25 plus $5 for each trainee that it requests. (This amounts to more than $1,600 for the first year's contributions.) The money is used for printing brochures and mailing literature to prospective students.

Some companies advertise C.A.P. in the "help wanted" columns of the newspapers. Some buy television time. Collectively, the companies are spending thousands of dollars to make the program known to high school students and to attract trainees to their plants.

College personnel have visited all the high schools in the college district to speak to graduating classes about C.A.P. Cooperating company representatives also have visited the high schools to give students a chance to hear the company point of view. One of the gratifying outcomes of the high school visits is that high school counselors, who may not have had much understanding of technical education programs, are now becoming fully aware of opportunities that exist for students who enroll in such a program. High school counselors are now some of our best supporters.

Local industrial firms, which are greatly concerned about the future supply of technicians, are now breathing somewhat easier because they see an opportunity for a constant flow of technical trainees.

The cooperating companies assist the college in a number of ways, and certainly one of the most important is the recruitment and selection of students. Once a student becomes interested in the program and applies to a company for employment as a C.A.P. student, he must go through the regular employment procedures of the company. He is tested, interviewed, and screened as any other applicant. Using this procedure, a company knows what kind of trainee it is getting. The company has some assurances that its trainees will fit into its total structure.

Even though the program has only begun, the cooperating companies are requesting that it be expanded from the original four majors to include others such as secretarial training, data processing, and quality control.

The Career Advancement Program, with the enthusiasm and interest it has generated, will grow over the years and be a fine opportunity for students and industry.

Occupational Service Unit

Finding community training needs, which can be met through an organized, structured curriculum is another challenge which faces community colleges. Gas station owners, for example, may want additional training for some of their employees, retailers may want training for their store clerks, or factories may want a short course for supervisory personnel.

Often, these training programs are conducted at a number of points in the community at varying times. They could just as well be taught at a single time by the community college—if the community college knows what needs to be done.

The Occupational Service Unit at Rock Valley College is made up of coordinators in major occupational areas. For the coming year, we will have a coordinator in business and a coordinator in technology. They are not coordinators in the traditional sense of the word for they will function, in part, as "sales representatives" who will scour the community looking for current training needs of business and industry.

When sufficient demand for a course is found, the coordinators will organize, staff, and arrange for the course to be taught. Some courses may be as short as five or six hours of instruction. Others may require twelve, fifteen, or twenty weeks to complete. Whatever the need is, it will be the coordinator's job to find it and to meet it.

No doubt there will be many training courses which can be taught in a relatively short period of time. Some will be easy to organize, others will require a great deal of effort to organize. Whatever the need is, though, we will attempt to meet it. It will not be easy, but we hope it will be effective.

James Burkhart and students at Stephens College in Missouri begin a long distance telephone interview in an American government and politics class.

ISLANDS OF INNOVATION

*Report of a Cross-Country Survey of Experiments in Teacher Utilization**

By B. Lamar Johnson

Last spring, at the request of the Fund for Advancement of Education and of the American Association of Junior Colleges, I made an exploratory survey of innovations in the utilization of faculty services by junior colleges.

On a 10,000-mile motor trip through twenty-six states and the District of Columbia, I visited twenty-one junior colleges, held conferences with administrators from thirty additional two-year colleges, corresponded with more than forty other colleges, and visited various agencies and organizations.

In an age of technology, education has an opportunity to use aids to teaching and learning that were unknown a generation ago. Some junior colleges are beginning to take advantage of such facilities.

Orange Coast College, California, in 1960, completed the construction of its Forum, which has been described as a "push-button lecture hall." Seating 300, the Forum is equipped with varied electronic equipment—with dual controls at the speaker's lectern and a projection alcove—including tape recorder, turntable, wireless microphone, slide and filmstrip projector, opaque projector, sound motion picture projector, electric pointer, television camera and screen. Lectures presented in the Forum are taped and are available in the library for student listening for purposes of review or make-up. Science Hall, a second "edition" of the Forum, seats 370 and is under construction. This new structure features automated projection equipment and a giant screen which permits the simultaneous projection of three objects, with controls available to change each independent of the other two.

At St. Petersburg Junior College in Florida, students in speech classes have their speeches recorded on video tape and then played back so that they can see and hear themselves "in action" as they and their classmates discuss their appearance, manner, and general presentations. At St. Petersburg and at Bronx Community College in New York City, plans are well advanced for taking video tapes of students in nursing as they work in a hospital—with, again, provision for playback.

A video tape recorder is available for classroom use by instructors at Foothill College in California who wish to record class periods and then play them back as an aid to improving their teaching.

At Stephens College in Missouri, telephones with attached amplification units and auxiliary microphones are set up in classrooms. Using this apparatus, the college has as "guests" in its classrooms experts and national leaders in varied fields—a governor, a labor union official, an author, editor, business executive. This plan is particularly used in political science, but also in literature, philosophy, and business education. Calls are by prearrangement made station to station, and costs are low.

Delta College in Michigan makes similar use of the telephone in teaching. At Delta, telephone interviews are recorded and are available for use and circulation through the library. El Camino College, California, uses the telephone in teaching journalism. Calls are made to local citizens who are interviewed by students as classmates and instructors listen.

A sizeable number of junior colleges are expand-

**A complete report of this study will be published this spring as an "Occasional Report" by the Junior College Leadership Program, Univ. of California, Los Angeles.*

ing their libraries to include varied audio-visual aids to learning. The convenience of "one-stop" instructional materials service is obvious. A few colleges are, however, going beyond the concept of centralizing materials. These colleges conceive an instructional center as an area literally saturated with all available appropriate tools for learning and designed and administered to facilitate the use of these tools.

The Stephens College Learning Center, for example, features:

1. A library which integrates books and periodicals with film, sound, and graphic collections through a common catalog so that students and faculty can have ready access to varied materials of learning.

2. A dissemination unit with facilities to transmit information, through varied media, throughout the Learning Center as well as to additional campus locations. Coaxial cables permit simultaneous transmission over seven video channels and fifty frequency modulation audio channels—plus numerous additional telephone circuits as needed.

3. "Auto learning" laboratories where students may independently use varied media of learning as they study. Available for use are motion picture and slide viewing rooms; listening rooms with disc and tape playbacks; and listening-viewing rooms for the reception of stereophonic sound and visual materials transmitted by coaxial cable from the storage-dissemination area.

4. A network of ducts throughout the Center to permit the expansion of facilities and also to permit the future installation of new type equipment and facilities which have not yet been devised.

5. A laboratory in which instructors may have "made-to-order" audio-visual materials—including charts and pictorials—for use in their teaching.

6. Conference rooms adjacent to the library stacks where books in the field of literature are housed. In these rooms, literature is taught by the use of a small group—individual conference method —with appropriate materials of instruction, books, immediately at hand.

At Miami-Dade Junior College, Florida, plans are well advanced on a learning center which is to embody many features of the Stephens College Center—adapted to the requirements of a large public junior college located in a metropolitan area. Similar plans are in process at St. Louis Junior College.

In planning its Learning Resources Center, Contra Costa College, California, is giving particular attention to the qualifications of a "learning resources specialist" who is to be added to the staff. He must be more than a technician. He must have had experience in teaching and be well grounded in the psychology of learning. He must, further, be creative and open-minded—not afraid to depart from traditional methods of instruction. Instructors will be encouraged to bring to the Center problems of teaching which they are unable to solve by usual methods. The facilities of the Center—and, in particular, the services of the learning resources specialist—will be available for assistance.

More discussed than any other technological aid to teaching is television. A number of junior colleges report promising developments in the use of television in teaching.

Chicago City Junior College is making more extensive use of television in teaching than any other two-year college in the country. As a matter of fact, Chicago has the only college-level program in the nation in which it is possible to earn a degree in an accredited institution through taking courses, all of which are taught on television. Sixty-five have graduated with the Associate in Arts degree after taking all of their work over television.

Each week the college purchases up to twenty-five hours from Chicago's educational television station, Channel 11. Courses on television are taught for two forty-five-minute periods each week, rather than for the three fifty-minute periods used on campus. Students register at one of the seven branches of the college and take examinations on campus as required. Assignments prepared by students are corrected by staff members, and instructors have regularly scheduled "telephone office hours" when they are available for consultation with television students. College library facilities are available to such students.

San Bernardino Valley College, California, has the only college-owned educational television station in California—and, so far as is known, the only junior college educational television station in the country. Assembled by students in the telecommunications program of the college, the station began operation in the fall of 1962 with ten to twelve hours on the air weekly.

During its first year of operation, the San Bernardino station offered courses in general biology (produced at the college and taught by a college instructor), income tax accounting (also college-produced and taught), and economics (purchased from the National Educational Television Network, supplemented by a weekly lecture by the college instructor who supervises the course). In addition, the station has presented a wide variety of taped cultural and educational programs, such as interviews with Carl Jung and Dame Edith Sitwell, lectures and dance performances by Martha Graham and her group, lectures in family relationships,

Edmund J. Cenedella (left), instructor in the St. Petersburg Junior College radio-television department, directs the taping of a closed-circuit television program in general psychology. Visible on the monitor screens is the lecturer, Mrs. Elizabeth Trent. At right is a student sound man. Courses in psychology, the political, physical, and biological sciences, nursing and dental hygiene, and portions of courses in speech, are taught via closed-circuit television. The college studios are capable of transmitting three programs simultaneously—one live, one on film, and one on tape. When the campus television network is complete, all but three buildings on the campus will be able to receive the closed-circuit teaching programs as well as four other channels.

and presentations of twelve full-length plays—including *Antigone* and *Hamlet.*

Phoenix College in Arizona, Amarillo College in Texas, and Daytona Beach College in Florida are among junior colleges which offer courses over commercial television stations.

In Texas a group of colleges and universities—including one junior college, San Antonio College—cooperate in developing, sharing, and telecasting freshman and sophomore courses. Florida junior colleges have, working together, prepared and taped several courses which are offered by the colleges over the educational television stations of the state.

A number of colleges use closed circuit television in their teaching.

At Delta College every classroom is equipped with facilities for receiving closed circuit telecasts over the college's four channels. Television is particularly used in teaching the several general education courses required at the college. One lecture in English composition is, for example, telecast each week. Similarly, members of the teaching team responsible for the course in humanities regularly use television for presentations to all sections of that course. Under this plan all students in courses have the opportunity to be taught by instructors who are recognized as outstanding lecturers.

A calendar of television and film presentations at Delta is duplicated and distributed each week so that students may "tune in on" telecasts of their choice.

Closed circuit television is used in supervising the hospital work of student nurses at Bronx Community College, New York. Fixed television cameras in eight hospital rooms are connected with two monitors at which the supervising instructor is seated. One monitor changes automatically every twelve seconds so that every student is seen frequently; and one is manually operated so that the instructor can change or "hold" as long as may be desired. Each student nurse has a transistor hearing aid, with an earphone, by means of which she can receive comments or instructions from the instructor. The student can also talk to the instructor by means of a microphone in the wall of each room.

A considerable number of colleges use closed circuit television for occasional teaching. At Cerritos College, California, for example, a camera and two monitors are used to telecast images of radioactive materials and also to present demonstrations which can be seen by an entire class only by using such magnification as is possible with television.

Buildings under construction and planned by many junior colleges suggest the likelihood of more extensive future use of television in teaching. Representative of these plans are policies under which conduits for the use of closed circuit television are to be provided in all rooms of new buildings at New York City Community College, at State University of New York Agricultural and Technical Institute at Farmingdale, and in Los Angeles junior colleges.

Schedule and Organization of Instruction

Various plans of organization—staff, materials of teaching, scheduling and coordinating the work and study of students—can be used to contribute to the effective utilization of faculty services. Among such plans used in junior colleges are programed learning, team teaching, independent study, work-study, and modifications of class schedules.

1. *Programed Learning.* There is an undeniable ferment of programed learning in junior colleges. Although few two-year colleges have institution-wide emphasis on programed instruction, a considerable number make some use of this plan for teaching. Most junior colleges use programs prepared and published elsewhere. At some colleges, staff members develop materials for their own use.

Delta College has a library of more than 200 different programs in a multiplicity of fields. Also available are a variety of teaching machines. Housed in a special room in the library, all programs are available on a rental basis—in particular, for use by adults for noncredit instruction. In some cases credit by examination may be arranged following the successful completion of a program. More than 800 enrollees have completed fully programed courses at Delta. In addition, extensive use of programed materials is made in remedial courses at Delta College. Remedial courses in English and science (physics and chemistry) are partially programed, and those in mathematics are completely programed. The "coordinator of improvement" at Delta College publishes and keeps up to date, with supplements, a bibliography of programs and a list of teaching machines.[1]

A number of colleges—in addition to Delta—use programed materials in remedial instruction. Los Angeles Valley College has a study skills center where programs in remedial English and mathematics are available. Students are referred to the center, which is under the supervision of a faculty member, by their instructors. Materials may be used at the center or borrowed for home study.

The Communications Clinic (the major function of which is to offer remedial instruction in English) at North Florida Junior College houses a sizeable collection of programed instructional materials, particularly in remedial English and mathematics. These are used for remedial instruction and also by students who have make-up work.

Programed materials—utilizing teaching machines —are used in a review course, Mathematics 10, at Montgomery Junior College, Maryland. A similar plan—but with the use of programed texts in class groups of sixty—is followed in the mathematics review course at San Diego City College, California. San Diego City College is further developing long-range plans for teaching remedial work in English and mathematics in large sections using self-tutoring programed materials.

Yuba College in California is experimenting with the use of programed texts in large (100 to 125 students) sections of remedial English.

A Stephens College instructor has developed programs of instruction in remedial English. These programs are housed in the Communications Library where students may use them. Tests covering the materials studied are given at scheduled hours once a week.

At Orange Coast College and at Cerritos College, teaching machines, together with programs, are housed in the college libraries where students come for make-up, remedial, or enrichment assignments —using the machines (some of which are located in carrels) and programs much as they would other library materials.

At Chicago City Junior College instructors are encouraged and helped in developing programed materials of instruction for use in their classes. Instructors are asked to identify units of their courses which they consistently—each time they offer a course—have difficulty in teaching. They are then invited to consult with the dean who is responsible for coordinating programed instruction to get help in developing programs for teaching the "difficult units." At Chicago programed materials are being used in a number of courses taught on television, especially to help students master topics with which they report difficulty.

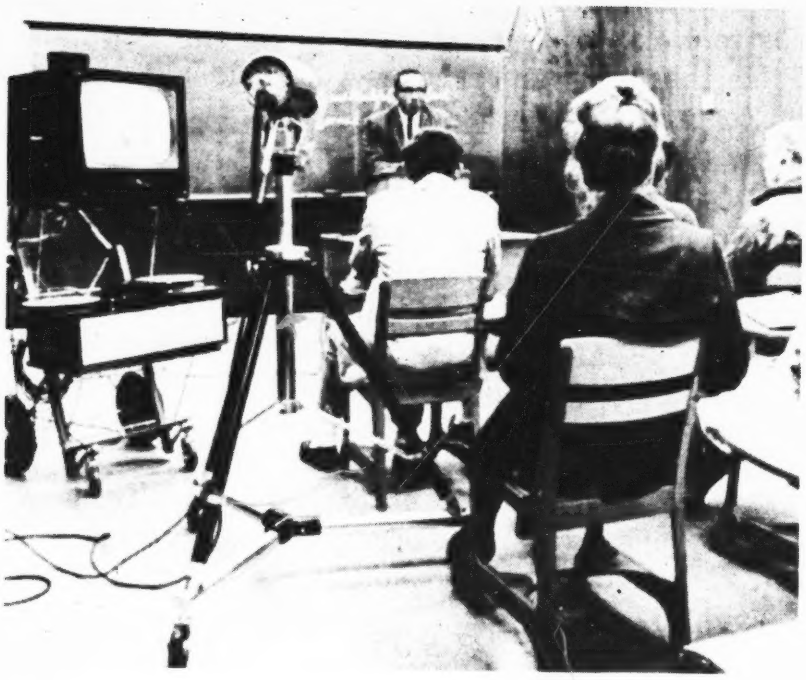
Instructors at a few junior colleges prepare programs which are published and used nationally. In a recent publication, *Wiley and Programmed Instruction*, John Wiley and Sons announce the publication of programs for fifteen college courses. It is notable that seven of the fifteen are by junior college instructors.

2. *Team Teaching*. Team teaching is used in a considerable number of junior colleges—at times, somewhat casually, as when instructors quite informally share lectures in courses with large enrollments; at other times, with creative ingenuity, as when instructors pool their talents in teaching a course or perhaps in teaching several courses to the same group of students.

At Delta College teams of instructors teach the basic general education courses in humanities, science, and social studies. The several teachers participating in a given course prepare video-taped lectures on topics for which they are best qualified. Lectures are telecast over closed circuit television—typically to small sections of courses meeting in groups in the concourse, a large (approximately 300 feet by 30 feet) acoustically treated room attractively furnished with clusters of chairs and tables in "living room" style. Discussions are held in small groups under the leadership of instructors—with staff members from time to time moving from group to group to participate in the discussion of topics in fields of their particular competence.

At Diablo Valley College in California, three groups of twenty-five students register for the same five general education courses (usually English composition, social science, humanities, biological science, and fundamentals of psychology) taught by a team of five teachers. Instructors meet weekly to discuss their plans of teaching—and, in particular, to plan for the coordination of their instruction.

At the Junior College of Broward County in



At Foothill College in California, Mel Applebaum, an English instructor, uses a portable video tape recorder in the classroom to record his lecture, then he wheels the equipment to a private office to watch the play back and evaluate his own presentation.

Florida, two instructors work as a team in teaching English composition and social studies to a group of highly selected superior students. Classes typically meet for two—rather than six—hours a week. Independent study is used to a notable degree—supplemented by individual and small group conferences.

Two instructors at Edison Junior College, Florida, work together in teaching a course in science and one in social studies. Consideration is being given to a plan under which three general education courses—comprising 60 per cent of a student's load—will be taught by a team of three teachers.

3. *Independent Study.* A few junior colleges are "making moves in this direction."

Honor programs which feature independent work by superior students are reported by Mt. San Antonio College and Yuba College, both in California.

Open laboratory hours during which students work "on their own" are reported by Montgomery Junior College, Maryland (chemistry) and Fashion Institute of Technology, New York (in both science and fashion).

At Wentworth Institute in Boston students are required to engage in a program of independent reading in literature during the summer between their freshman and sophomore years. Their achievement in this reading is tested by examinations given during the orientation week which precedes the opening of college in September.

The independent reading of literature is central to the course in world literature at Stephens College. Here students meet for conferences, individually or in small groups, with their instructors one hour each week (rather than for the usual three hours) and read individually for eight or more hours weekly. They also keep reading diaries which are used as a basis for conferences with their instructors. A feature of the Stephens' plan is the location of the rooms in which conferences are held immediately adjacent to the literature stacks in the library so that books are conveniently at hand for reference and discussion.

A number of junior colleges report that their faculties have under investigation and consideration plans for independent study: American River College, Diablo Valley College, and Fashion Institute of Technology. F.I.T. is working on plans which involve counseling-teaching situations in which students would be taught processes of and guided to experiences in independent learning. Featured in proposals under consideration are programed learning, the development of the library as a learning center, the use of closed circuit television, and continued and expanded utilization of open laboratory hours.

4. *Work-Study.* During the exploratory survey I identified a number of work-study programs.

Sinclair College in Ohio has an extensive work-study program during which students in business and technology are alternately employed and attend college during periods of eight weeks each.

Lansing Community College has a work-study program in civil technology in cooperation with the Michigan State Highway Department. Twenty-five students work for the Highway Department for six months and then attend college for six months. Students continue this alternate plan until their completion of college—with work at the college coordinated with experience at the Highway Department.

Daytona Beach Junior College has a cooperative program in hotel-motel management under which students are employed at a hotel or motel for half a day and attend college classes for half a day.

In a recent report Melvin L. Barlow identifies and describes thirty-three work-study programs in eighteen California junior colleges.[2]

A survey looking forward to the development of work-study programs is in progress at Montgomery Junior College. The college is investigating the personnel needs of 5,000 employers in the Maryland-Washington, D.C., area and, in particular, is seeking to identify possible needs and opportunity for work-study programs.

5. *Class Schedules.* The class schedule would appear to be a fruitful area in which to experiment for colleges interested in developing plans for the effective utilization of faculty services. And yet, rare instances were found of any attempts to break the lockstep of the traditional calendar.

A schedule modification to meet the needs of employed students is reported at Lansing Community College and at Mt. San Antonio College, California.

At Lansing a "swing-shift program" is offered under which the same courses are taught from seven to ten at night and from ten in the forenoon until noon. When a worker changes shifts at his employment, he can continue his college work in the same courses but scheduled at different hours. This plan of scheduling is followed in several fields—including mathematics, drafting, and offerings in technological fields. A somewhat similar plan is followed in the police science program at Mt. San Antonio College.

With the assistance of a modest foundation grant, five junior colleges in the state of Washington (Highline College, Olympic College, Peninsula College, Skagit Valley College, and Yakima Valley College) are studying the advantages, disadvantages, and possibilities of the six-day week.

Space will not permit the description of additional developments. I will, however, list a few of them:

A number of colleges employ teaching aides for instructors—particularly those who are teaching large classes.

A few colleges provide special assistance—for example, by a director of instructional improvement or a director of institutional research—for instructors in developing plans for improving teaching.

Some colleges relieve faculty members of time from teaching or employ them during vacation periods to work on developmental planning.

Neighboring junior colleges occasionally engage in cooperative curriculum planning as an aid to avoiding the needless duplication of costly programs.

The junior colleges of San Diego County in California are pooling their resources for use in employing visiting experts, authorities, and artists. "Men of ideas" come to the respective campuses for periods varying from an hour or two to a semester or two for lectures, seminars, conferences, performances, and the like.

A few colleges share or exchange faculty members. Some exchanges occur between colleges in different sections of the country.

Conclusion

I have reported a number of practices which give some indication of what we may anticipate in junior colleges as, through necessity, they give increasing attention to improving the processes and organization of teaching, and thereby increase the effectiveness with which faculty services are utilized.

Junior colleges have made advances in instruction. But, actually, only a few faltering steps have been taken. Bold advances must be the order of the day.

To this end, and to provide leadership which will be unhampered by the pressing duties of day-to-day administration, I have a proposal—in fact, an urgent recommendation. It is this: I urge junior colleges to appoint vice-presidents in charge of heresy. Advanced in a different context by Philip H. Coombs at UCLA in 1960,[3] this proposal would provide a staff—with no administrative responsibilities—whose duty, as a minimum, it would be to keep up with new developments nationally and to initiate plans for exploiting them at his own institution. We need to be daring in education. Why not a vice-president in charge of heresy?

Large opportunity lies ahead in the imaginative development of unique plans for a unique institution, the junior college.

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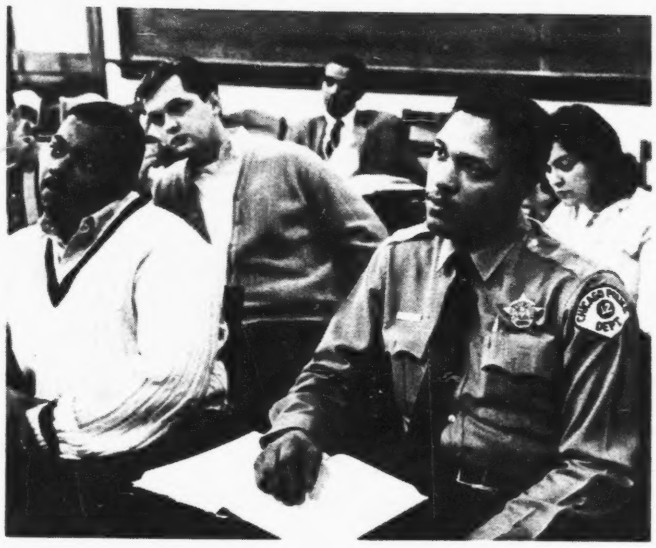
[1] Hendershot, Carl H. *Programmed Learning: A Bibliography of Programs and Presentation Devices.* University Center, Michigan: Delta College, 1963.

[2] Barlow, Melvin L. *A Survey of Junior College Work Experience Education Programs, 1962-63.* Los Angeles: Division of Vocational Education, University of California, Los Angeles, 1963.

[3] Coombs, Philip H. *The Technical Frontiers of Education.* The Twenty-seventh Annual Sir John Adams Lecture at the University of California, Los Angeles, March 15, 1960. Los Angeles: School of Education, University of California, Los Angeles, 1960. pp. 14-15.



CHICAGO CITY COLLEGE: A CENTER FOR INNOVATION

An Urban Setting Provides Many Opportunities for Community Service

By Susan Koester

The major concern of the faculty and administration of Chicago City College is how to make the educational process relevant to the needs of community residents.

Because these needs are not only extremely diverse, but also in a constant state of change, the college has been involved with extensive experimentation and has become a center for innovation.

Programs for change involve both the physical environment in which the urban college student learns best and new educational methods and curriculums for its mushrooming student population, expected to reach 100,000 in the 1970's.

At present, Chicago City College has 36,000 students enrolled at eight campuses located throughout the city. Five new campuses are in the planning stage. Each will cost $25 million and will have an enrollment of 10,000 students. Construction of the first campus began on the west side in mid-December.

The proposed expansion of a sixth campus, a skyscraper in downtown Chicago, has been approved by the board which operates the college, and architects are now being sought.

To stimulate and direct innovation in the classroom, Chicago City College has established an "Innovations Center." Here, selected faculty members are given time away from teaching activities to develop new methods for better serving the two-year college student.

The center was established in February 1968 and to date has had thirty-four participants who have been investigating such areas as Afro-American studies, students and computers, new learning resource centers, interdisciplinary approaches for courses, and remedial learning methods.

Last September the center's participants, called "fellows," reported the progress of their activities to 300 faculty members at a one-day conference. The purpose of the day's session and workshops was to provide new insight to the faculty on how to present vital material to students and enhance their learning experiences.

Programs

Present innovative programs are moving rapidly from the theoretical stage to actuality. In the field of adult education, for example, the Crane campus, on Chicago's west side, has courses available to adults in storefront locations. Such courses as community organization leadership training; social dynamics of ghetto living; youth work aide; social service; Afro-American history, and many others are being offered at social agencies, churches, storefronts, and businesses in order to bring information and services to the people.

Remedial education is also being explored in several new programs. For example, the Urban Skills Academy of Chicago City College has been helping illiterate adults learn to read and write since March 1968. In just three months, adults with a reading ability at the third-grade level or below have improved their reading to the sixth-grade level or above, making them functionally literate.

The 100 students in the academy range in age from nineteen to seventy; twenty-nine graduated from the program with a reading level at the sixth grade or above.

The success of the academy is attributed to two unusual features. First, the students have highly individualized instruction. There are four master teachers who conduct classes and also supervise three program aides and forty volunteer tutors from the Chicago Women's Aid and Chicago-area high schools and colleges. Second, there are weekly group therapy sessions for students which utilize Gestalt therapy, transactional analysis, and operant conditioning. The purpose of these sessions is to help students get over "hang-ups" which prevent them from reading.

Urban Education Center

Another remedial program which has proved to be a successful experiment is the Urban Education Center of Chicago City College. Now in its second year of operation, the experimental program is sponsored by the Wilson Campus in cooperation with Chicago's Roosevelt University. The major thesis is that low-achieving and underachieving high school graduates are more likely to succeed in college if they see their collegiate experience as a related life activity rather than as an obstacle to be overcome on the way to achieving social identity and mobility.

In the first phase of the program each of the seventy students enrolled must go through a well-planned, individualized reading program at the Roosevelt University Reading Institute. Even while the student is receiving individualized reading instruction, he is engaged in the second phase of the Urban Education Center program. This phase, if successfully completed, will reward the student with a maximum of eighteen hours of transferable college credit in English and literature, social science, and biology.

Because of the student's deficiencies in skills and content areas, the program provides him with concurrent and continuing tutorials and workshops with the eight teachers at the center. The student's active involvement in making decisions regarding course content, rules of the center, and extracurricular activities is required. For example, among the behavioral objectives of the program:

1. The student will demand that the instructor seek out instructional resources from the former's community.
2. The student will criticize the instructor's choice of material when he feels it is not relevant.
3. The student will suggest specific areas of material to be covered in class.

Occupational Education

In the field of occupational and technical education, three new programs are particularly outstanding. The Allied Health Program at the Crane Campus is designed to ease the shortage of hospital personnel. Since its beginning in September 1967, about 100 students have graduated from the twenty-eight week program which prepares students, many of whom have been on welfare, to join health teams as ward clerks, occupational therapy aides, community health workers, dental assistant aides, and a variety of other health occupations. Fourteen weeks of the program are spent in the classroom and the last fourteen weeks on the job. The program works with sixteen Chicago area hospitals which provide the clinical facilities for the students.

In addition, the Wilson campus of Chicago City College has developed a two-year associate of arts degree program in social service to help meet the manpower shortage in the field of social work. The program is planned to develop social service aides to work with professionally trained social workers in a number of settings. These include private casework and group-work agencies, public welfare, Office of Economic Opportunity programs, and mental health agencies. Graduates are qualified for jobs as family welfare aides, youth work aides, and community aides.

The Loop Campus of Chicago City College offers a Public Service Institute to recruit, train, and upgrade many city, county, state, and federal employees, including law enforcement personnel. Last year more than 1,500 persons were enrolled in the institute. Such courses as building rehabilitation for city inspectors, executive development for city administrators, civil technology, architecture, child development, preschool education, and data processing for welfare recipients are offered.

TV College

Since 1955, a focal point for innovation at Chicago City College has been TV College. In twelve years of operation, more than 100,000 students have registered for 150,000 credit and noncredit courses. These are telecast over Chicago's two education TV stations, WTTW (Channel 11) and WXXW (Channel 20).

As an extension of the college classroom, TV College has provided many persons with opportunities for higher education. Students include prison inmates, shut-ins, housewives, and many others who choose from courses offered in a variety of fields. Thus far, 150 students have earned the two-year associate of arts degree for work completed exclusively via TV College. Another 1,600 have completed a major part of their college work by enrolling in TV courses. Many courses have been made available to the Great Plains Instructional Television Library and are used by cities where educational television stations are in operation.

The excitement of innovative programs made possible by an urban setting has been reflected in the number of teaching applications Chicago City College has received—2,300 applications in the last two years.

Articulation Is An Opportunity

The Articulation Conference in California Has Provided a Method for New Agreements

By Frederick C. Kintzer

"Vote Nears on 'Automatic' J. C. Credit Plan." This caption, appearing in the March 29, 1966, edition of the *Sacramento Bee,* highlighted a Coordinating Council on Higher Education subcommittee discussion on a controversial proposal to require the University of California as well as the state colleges to award students automatic credit for general education courses taken in California junior colleges.

University and state college representatives on the council opposed the motion. Junior college members vigorously supported it. The senior college people maintained that evaluation of junior college courses and the assigning of credit toward a bachelor's degree are prerogatives of university and state college faculties who should determine their own curriculum and graduation requirements. On the other hand, representatives from the state's junior colleges believed that the right of faculties to set curriculum should apply equally to junior college faculties. They also countered with a "proof-of-the-product" argument: "The record of junior college transfer students is an accepted fact. All we ask is a chance to prove it."

Two Strongly Defensible Arguments

Members of the council's subcommittee on education generally sided with the junior college viewpoint that junior college faculties should be permitted to establish their own lower-division courses to meet the requirements set by law or by the university or state colleges, and, furthermore, deserved guarantees that such work would not be later jeopardized by "arbitrary and capricious whims" of university and state college faculties.

Middle ground action on this hot issue was subsequently taken by the coordinating council which admonished both groups to develop without delay "mutually acceptable" policies and to submit a progress report in the spring of 1967. The council further prodded the senior institutions to reduce enrollments of lower-division students.

This recent exchange dramatized the critical need for solutions, specifically in California and generally throughout the country, to the problem of junior college—senior college and university articulation. Characteristic of all complex situations, both sides present strongly defensible arguments.

The University Case

The right to establish curriculum and to set standards for the baccalaureate degree has long been a faculty responsibility. The Board of Regents of the University of California formalized this responsibility soon after the close of World War I, giving to the faculty the privilege of establishing degree requirements and courses consistent with these requirements. One of the long-standing traditions of the academic world, this responsibility, professors feel, assures consistent academic quality.

Although professors, in general, have high regard for the work of the state's junior colleges, they fear "mickey mouse" courses which may be initiated if lower-division programs become the sole responsibility of the two-year institutions. Professors fear that "solids" are likely to be diluted—that students transferring as juniors will not be uniformly prepared to stand the rigorous competition of upper-division regulars.

At the same time, university deans and professors have confidence in the well-established system of junior college course status determination maintained by the university-wide O.R.S. (Office of Relations with Schools). Briefly explained, new courses announced by junior colleges as collegiate are, under this highly developed procedure, first sent by the receiving O.R.S. officer to the university's director of admissions for approval at the point of admission. The university accepts junior college courses equivalent to or nearly equivalent to courses it offers to its own freshmen and sophomores. It also accepts for credit junior college courses which are not like any university courses, but whose purposes, scope,

and depth make them appropriate to a university degree. Those which have no counterpart on a campus are accepted "by title"—elective credit toward a university degree.

When notified that a course is acceptable, a junior college dean of instruction will frequently request an equivalency check to determine use in satisfying a particular college or major requirement. At this point the receiving university officer notifies his colleague stationed on the appropriate university campus, who in turn is held responsible for obtaining an official answer from a school or college, or, at times, an individual department.

This process, complex, taxing, and sometimes exasperatingly slow, does work. Transfer problems are not widespread. They are confined to the major requirement level which is primarily upper division.

Those who express concern over the redirection of University of California applicants to an alternate campus are regularly reminded that junior college transfer students have not been and will not be considered eligible for redirection. To that extent junior college applicants are given priority treatment in admissions. This briefly is the university's position.

The Junior College Case

California junior college leaders base their campaign for the right to set lower-division requirements unchallenged by senior transfer institutions on three principal arguments: (a) percentage of freshman-sophomore students now attending junior colleges; (b) success of junior college students in upper-division work; and (c) lack of opportunity in the present senior college controlled system to develop new and innovative programs—to modernize curriculums.

California public junior colleges, as Henry Tyler, executive secretary of the California Junior College Association, has frequently repeated, enroll more than two-thirds of all lower-division students. According to the state's master plan, junior colleges are a part of the tripartite system of higher education. If the partners are equal then the two-year institutions should not be required to submit outlines for validation of courses to the four-year institutions.

Junior college leaders further point to the success of their students after transfer as proof enough that two-year colleges should be allowed to establish their own general education patterns. They refer to the 1957 University of California, Berkeley-U.C.L.A., study conducted by Grace V. Bird (then associate director of relations with schools) and her associates. This comprehensive study gave substance to the frequently quoted statement: "Eligible" students transferring to the University of California (either Berkeley or U.C.L.A.) from California public junior colleges, after a brief adjustment period, do as well as native students.

Constant pressure from senior colleges to conform to their course outlines inordinately hinders junior college attempts to design courses appropriate to student needs. Junior college leaders ask the basic question: Do the university or state colleges have the right to pass judgment on our courses if the junior colleges are, in fact, equal partners with the university and state colleges in higher education? They point out that rigid adherence to university offerings curtails efforts to introduce innovation into their offerings. Experimental programs, say junior college people, are usually hard to "sell" to receiving senior institutions. They further assert that emphasis on meeting academic demands slows development of terminal curriculums.

This, in a word, is the junior college case.

Some Areas of Tension

University and senior college—junior college relationships in California appear, on the whole, to be moving ahead smoothly. The "Articulation Conference," a quadripartite statewide organization devoted to efficient progress of students from the high school through graduate school, informally supervises the articulation process. This unique organi-

"For Californians, innovations in the articulation process are best developed through the Articulation Conference."

zation exerts strong influence in maintaining open communication channels among the various segments of California public education.

As indicated earlier, the university accepts without question junior college courses equivalent to or nearly equivalent to courses it offers to its own lower-division students. It will also accept for elective, or "title," credit junior college courses which are not like any of its own courses, but whose purposes, scope, and depth make them appropriate to a university degree. In certain instances, however, it limits for various reasons the number of transfer credits in certain subject fields. Since, for example, few courses in physical education or in business education are offered by the university, few units in these areas are accepted from junior colleges. These are indeed areas of tension. Transferability decisions are not those of the junior colleges—and, in varying degrees, they resent it.

Occasional problems also occur in differing major field and graduation requirements among schools and colleges of the various university campuses. While stereotyping curriculum patterns throughout the total university would be an obvious mistake, it is crucial that efforts be continued to minimize such differences.

With the revolutionary change to year-round operations and a shift from the semester to the quarter calendar initiated in the fall of 1966, the university, immediately, and state colleges, in stages, have strategic opportunities to develop reciprocal or cooperative arrangements among their own units and, in general, to give transfer students the benefit of the doubt. Led by two new campuses, Irvine and Santa Cruz which count as their own graduation requirements any requirements completed on other university campuses, and several old campuses, U.C.L.A. in particular, significant progress should be acknowledged. According to a policy recently announced by the U.C.L.A. College of Letters and Science, certain categories of advanced standing students are allowed credit for the entire set of general university and college requirements. Total package reciprocity of breadth requirements is also practiced by the Santa Barbara, Riverside, and Davis Colleges of Letters and Science. ("Breadth requirements" is university terminology for its own general education requirements for graduation.)

Total package reciprocity, however, does not necessarily include credit on a new campus for only partial completion of graduation or breadth requirements on the initial campus. Basic decisions in this area, however, have been made. Further progress is therefore anticipated.

The tendency of university and senior college faculties to move courses from lower to upper division, making the latter requirements for further work, is a definite threat, particularly to the smaller junior colleges. This situation coupled with the obliteration of the line separating lower and upper divisions creates, at least for some of the state's two-year colleges, an impossible situation.

A recent count made on one university campus listed 163 separate courses as required of freshmen and sophomores by one or more departments. It is doubtful that any but the largest junior colleges could hope to come close to matching this number of courses named by a single senior institution.

This situation, however, is not all bad from the junior college point of view. Shifting of university courses from upper to lower divisions, notably in mathematics, increases the number of transfer-eligible courses which two-year colleges may now claim. Yet, it must be repeated that the decision is not theirs to make.

Conference Table Communication

Where articulation is not perfect, conference table communication is essential. Again, Californians feel that the Articulation Conference, through its liaison committee meetings and special subject matter conferences, holds greatest promise in preventing action before communication.

Occasionally, in spite of all precautions, changes in university curriculums are formalized before junior colleges are thoroughly aware of them. While such instances may, in part, illustrate an inclination of some professors to tell high schools and junior colleges what must be done, the explosive growth of knowledge, particularly in the sciences, presents an emergency situation creating a compulsion to increase the tempo of change. Most susceptible to rapid change are courses in the biological sciences, mathematics and foreign languages—disciplines in which revolutionary developments have in recent years affected schools up and down the educational ladder.

The Articulation Conference, the unique organization mentioned earlier, remains particularly active in these fields. Three large mathematics conferences, for example, have been sponsored since 1961. Recommended by special liaison committees of the Articulation Conference, these sessions include broad representation from California public high schools and public institutions of higher learning. Deeply committed to action through influence rather than by force, this informal involuntary organization is used as a sounding board for new ideas in curriculum reform and a clearinghouse for grievances.

On the Plus Side

Perhaps the greatest advances in the improvement of articulation between junior and senior situations in California—including both the university and state colleges—are found in agreements recently formalized with the six colleges of the Los Angeles Junior College District. Reported in a document released by the district's college curriculum coordinator on September 12, 1966, articulation agreements were announced with the University of California and five state colleges. First appearing as a uniform numbering system for all Los Angeles colleges, the 1966-67 edition of this unique document includes (a) a university-wide list of courses acceptable for transfer to any campus of the university; (b) courses acceptable for meeting general education requirements of the U.C.L.A. Colleges of Letters and Science and Fine Arts, and (c) courses meeting general education requirements of five nearby state colleges.

Articulation agreements which involve groups of junior and senior colleges are close to reality in the Los Angeles metropolitan area. Where one-to-one agreements may only compound the junior college problem, a group approach holds much promise. In the words of Albert Caliguiri, college curriculum coordinator, Los Angeles City Schools: "The foundation is now laid for the development of more universal agreements on general education transferability."

Junior college administrators are understandably pressing for an across-the-board junior standing for their graduates. Their course patterns, it is true, must parallel lower-division requirements of many senior institutions—an unreasonable, if not an impossible position.

The State of Florida has taken the longest step toward what junior college leaders would feel is an ideal system (see March 1967, *Journal*, pages 50 and 52). A statement prepared by the Florida State Department of Education and issued under the title: "Policies for Transferring Students among Florida's Public Institutions of Higher Learning," sets the basic formula:

> Junior college transfers shall be considered as having met the general education requirements of the receiving senior institution if the junior college has certified that the student has completed the lower-division general education requirements of the junior college. This policy should apply to all junior college transfers, both graduates and nongraduates.

While evaluation of this innovative plan is not within the scope of this article, certain questions would necessarily have to be answered if such a plan would aid rather than hinder transfer students. Among these are the following:

1. Are transfer students adequately prepared for upper-division work? What statewide criteria or standards guide junior college general education patterns? Where course titles are similar, is content reasonably standardized among the state's junior colleges?
2. Are transfer students realistically prepared for upper-division courses? Can junior college transfers compete with their university counterparts in specialized major field courses?

(On the California scene, the university answers "yes" to all of these questions.)

3. Is maximum cooperation assured from both two and four-year college faculties?

The Florida plan is innovative and daring, but no more daring than the University of California's acceptance of high school and junior college integrity to construct and offer their own courses.

While reforms in other states, including California, may not follow the Florida pattern, liberalization of transfer credit for advanced standing is inevitable. Certainly, senior institutions should cooperate to relieve pressures felt by junior colleges in their diversified efforts to serve many masters, but, on the other hand, should not be asked to relinquish responsibility for establishing their own lower-division requirements. Lower-division pattern dictation by the junior colleges is an opposite extreme. Solutions will not be found by merely transferring the "shoe to the other foot." Senior institutions should, additionally, avoid proliferating specific lower-division requirements which two-year colleges—particularly smaller ones—cannot hope to match or approach. But, by the same token, to put off requirements overburdens the upper-division student and tends to force five and six-year curriculums.

Cooperation among all institutions responsible for higher education must be sought and won. In James Nelson's words: "They must be willing to meet on the common ground of service to the student if articulation is to be successful." [1]

For Californians, innovations in the articulation process are best developed through the Articulation Conference. The great strength of this organization is that it carries the weight of agreement not of edict; it is dedicated to bringing about better understanding among the four segments of public education rather than to allow imposition of will of one upon another.

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[1] Nelson, James H. "Guidelines for Articulation." *Junior College Journal*. 36:6, 26; March, 1966.

By Richard C. Richardson, Jr. and Paul A. Elsner

GENERAL EDUCATION *for the* DISADVANTAGED

Forest Park Community College in St. Louis Is Experimenting with A Special Curriculum for Educationally Disadvantaged Students

A distinguishing feature of the community junior college has been its open door admission policy. The popularization of higher education has resulted in an influx of marginal students who increasingly view the junior college as a logical extension of the secondary school. The junior college, consequently, is torn between the necessity of maintaining standards to guarantee the employability and transferability of its graduates, and the knowledge that it constitutes the last opportunity for formal education some of its students will ever have.

The problem of the marginal student is particularly acute in urban areas where poverty and de facto segregation generate discouraging numbers of educationally disadvantaged students who lack preparation for even the least rigorous technical programs offered by the junior college. Moreover, substantial numbers of these students fail to recognize their limitations and persist in enrolling in college transfer courses for status reasons to the mutual confoundment of themselves and their instructors.

Junior college educators have coined such phrases as the "revolving door" in criticizing existing programs for failing to meet the needs of from one-third to one-half of the total student population. The extremely high attrition rates, notably among those coming from lower socioeconomic groups, reported by Burton R. Clark (1960), and Dorothy M. Knoell (1963), tend to support such statements of program inadequacy. While there is a strong proclivity on the part of many in the field to assume that the experience of failing out or dropping out of college is beneficial, no satisfactory evidence has been advanced to support this somewhat euphemistic point of view. Rather, it is more probable that the most noteworthy achievement of current efforts to resolve the problem of the educationally disadvantaged has been to salve the institutional conscience while weeding out those who are unprepared.

Several basic directions may be observed among junior colleges attempting to meet the needs of the disadvantaged group. The first, and by far the most common, involves the piecemeal offering of remedial or developmental courses. The avowed purpose of such offerings is to repair deficiencies, notably in the areas of English and mathematics, so that students may then enter college transfer and technical-level courses. Most frequently these courses are taught by instructors with no special training who view them as distasteful chores that detract from the professional status of both instructor and institution. The major achievement of developmental courses has been to produce a more homogeneous grouping in college transfer courses.

The fragmented remedial approach suffers from a number of serious weaknesses. Although homogeneous grouping may improve the quality of transfer education no one has seriously asserted that such an approach will permit junior colleges to accomplish in one semester what public schools have failed to attain in twelve years. It would be possible to criticize in considerable detail certain assumptions that underlie the offering of isolated developmental courses in the guise of meeting the needs of the disadvantaged student. Suffice it to say that while such courses may be helpful to those needing mildly remedial or refresher work, they fail utterly to meet the needs of the group with which this article is concerned.

A second, more ambitious, approach consists of the structuring of a unified program of remedial courses of one or two semesters in length. Augmented by intensive counseling efforts, remedial courses are generally offered in the areas of mathematics, English, and social science. Even where well-conceived and effectively administered, this approach, too, has certain limitations. By establishing as its objective the improvement of student capacities for doing college level work, it automatically dooms to failure as many as three of every four who enter the program. Further, these programs frequently offer the student only a single semester in which to demonstrate the capability for college work. Failure to do so results in disqualification. While such a program is not the ultimate answer to the problem of the disadvantaged, it represents a significant improvement over the previous approach. It does at least acknowledge the institutional responsibility for serving students who do not meet the aptitude and achievement requirements of other segments of the curriculum by offering them a realistic and unified program of course offerings and counseling.

A third avenue of attack is currently being pursued by a very limited number of community colleges, predominantly in major urban areas. Evolving from the remedial approach, the emphasis has shifted to a concept of terminal preparation for entrance into an occupation. This terminal-occupational emphasis appears far more realistic for most students who lack qualifications for entrance into standard course offering. Moreover, students demonstrating exceptional achievement may still be counseled into advanced work in the technical or transfer curriculum. The features of this program which appear to be particularly strong include:

1. The effort to have *only* volunteers teaching in the program
2. The inclusion of basic skills in reading and communication
3. The careful analysis of students' needs and capacities in light of program objectives

It should be added that interviews with faculty and students involved in this type of program have revealed a high degree of commitment and interest, a condition not generally evident in remedial or developmental courses of the kind described in the previous two programs.

Before concluding this discussion of current efforts to deal with the problems of the disadvantaged, a fourth approach deserves mention. The rapid development of programed learning materials has provided, for the first time, the opportunity for students lacking basic skills to acquire these through individual effort and at varying rates. While programed materials are not suggested as any type of panacea, their intelligent and selective use under carefully controlled conditions may well be a major part of the answer to the repair function of the junior college. The approach taken in North Carolina under the direction of Edward T. Brown deserves close scrutiny. If preliminary successes of the Fundamentals Learning Laboratories approach are confirmed by further studies, a major dimension could be added to the instructional program for disadvantaged learners at a reasonably modest expense.

Conclusions from Existing Practices

A careful analysis of existing programs of the type previously described appears to support these observations:

1. Remedial courses do not meet the needs of the educationally disadvantaged, a group that comprises one-third or more of the entering classes of many open door urban community colleges. As a corollary, selection for remedial type courses should be done as carefully as for the most demanding associate degree programs. If remedial courses are to have any chance of success, they must utilize specially trained instructors and cannot become the dumping grounds for a bewildering array of students not wanted in more academically respectable courses.

2. Technical and vocational courses most frequently do not attract the educationally disadvantaged student. Further, even if some method existed for directing disadvantaged students into these

areas, most would not be able to meet the minimum level of performance demanded by the program.

3. Open door colleges must and do practice selective admissions with respect to the programs that they offer. Students with serious educational disabilities cannot profit from demanding courses at the technical and transfer level. Their presence in such courses affects classroom progress and could constitute a deterrent to instructor morale.

4. The educationally disadvantaged student is coming to the open door community college in ever-increasing numbers. The recent trend toward increased college attendance by students falling below predetermined indexes of success criteria has probably resulted from (1) colleges and universities reaching into a wider range of social class structures for its students, (2) the need for higher level vocational and professional training on the part of an expanding future working force, and (3) the emerging of a more comprehensive strata of collegiate institutions, such as the public junior college.

More recently, belated consideration is being given to the ethics of using the community college as a one-semester sieve. It appears likely that disadvantaged students will be present at least one semester and in many instances a full year. The question, then, becomes not whether such students will be educated but rather how they can best be educated.

A New Approach

Forest Park Community College of the Junior College District of St. Louis-St. Louis County has devoted extensive study to the problem of the educationally disadvantaged. A faculty committee reviewing the results of the college program for the fall session, 1964, found that of a total on-campus enrollment of 1,510, academic difficulty was experienced by 691 or 46 per cent. A total of 278 students were placed on enforced withdrawal, 318 were placed on academic probation, ninety-five withdrew officially, while an additional eighty-five simply stopped coming. The faculty committee recommended that an experimental program be established to attempt to meet the needs of the disadvantaged student. Specifically, the committee spelled out the following goals:

1. Meeting the needs of students in the lower range of the ability spectrum.

2. Improving standards in transfer courses by removing students incapable of making a contribution or of achieving significant benefit.

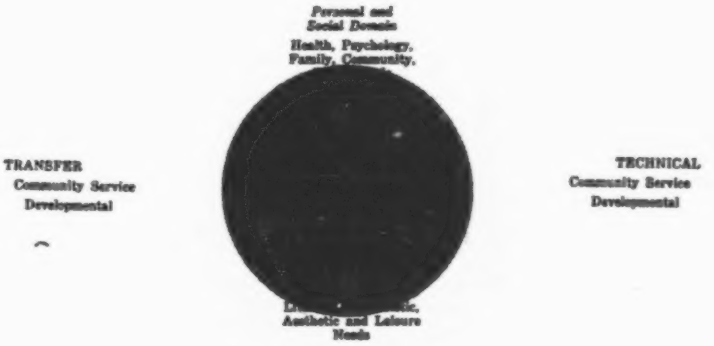
3. Providing educationally disadvantaged students with intensive counseling on an individual and group basis to: (a) minimize emotional factors inhibiting success; (b) aid students to assess realistically their potential and to relate this to vocational goals; and (c) identify students incapable of benefiting from any college program and refer them to community resources through accurate and complete knowledge of apprenticeship requirements, job openings, training courses such as those sponsored by the Manpower Development and Training Act, as well as other community resources.

4. Salvaging the academically able students from this group who might be upgraded to the point where they could be successful in regular technical or transfer programs.

It was not by accident that the salvage function of this program was placed last. The committee was determined that the program should be viewed as an end in and of itself, so that a student who never progressed beyond might nonetheless experience a feeling of success. Further, the committee determined that the emphasis of the program would be neither remedial nor vocational. Rather, an attempt would be made to structure a stimulating and challenging one-year program of general education on the students' level.

Since the salvage function was to be downgraded rather than excluded, some provision had to be made for providing students with the basic skills necessary for success in more demanding programs. The answer to this problem was found in the development of a programed materials learning laboratory patterned after the North Carolina approach. Programed materials and tutorial assistance would be provided in a learning center where the responsi-

FIGURE I:
GENERAL EDUCATION FOR THE EDUCATIONALLY DISADVANTAGED


Personal and Social Domain
Health, Psychology, Family, Community,
TRANSFER
Community Service
Developmental
TECHNICAL
Community Service
Developmental
Aesthetic and Leisure Needs

bility for mastery of the materials would rest primarily with the student. This center would supplement the organized general education classes.

Concurrent with curriculum planning, intensive efforts were begun to study the characteristics of the student. Social workers, members of the Human Development Corporation, high school curriculum workers, and others met with the committee to convey the benefits of their experience.

It was agreed at an early point in the discussions that instructors must volunteer for the program and would have to be willing to accept full-time assignment.

Considerations in Planning

Students would be grouped in divisions of 100, to which a five-person team would be assigned. Each team was to consist of one counselor, a learning laboratory coordinator (reading specialist backgrounds), and three representatives of academic divisions. The basic approach would involve an attempt to create a core curriculum organized around the social science area. In general, these considerations were central to planning the program:

1. A curriculum for the educationally disadvantaged should be concerned with the broader development of the person—this development would include his personal and emotional well-being as well as his intellectual development.

2. The program should assist the student in coping with his environment—his more immediate pressures would come from his academic environment but his ability to adjust to pressures of collegiate life would take on greater implication for total personal development as a citizen.

3. The program should not be delineated in terms of a specific curriculum or in terms of logically arranged course content; the courses should be wider in scope, less fixed—their content should be drawn from many more facets of human problems and they should emphasize the individual student's needs.

The model presented in Figure 1 suggests the areas from which the general education content of the program was drawn. It provides also some idea of how the program relates to traditional curriculum patterns.

While students would take their course offerings as a part of a special group, every attempt would be made to include them in other activities common to the college experience. They would be permitted to enroll in standard physical education courses or sing in the college chorus. The entire range of student activities would be open and they would be encouraged to participate. By such attempts it was hoped that any negative concomitants of enrollment in a special program might be minimized. It was assumed that the above provision would assist the educationally disadvantaged student in widening his social radius, in exploring other possible enriching relationships with students, and in modifying his own self-concept as he related to and became accepted by others.

A Possible Trend

The program described in this article was implemented in September, 1965. While it is still too soon to evaluate results, it should be noted that along with preparations for implementing the program went equally detailed efforts concerning methods of evaluation. It was obvious that the once-accepted criterion of success, admission to the college transfer program, would have to be shelved. No particular emphasis could be placed on keeping people in the program. If it were possible to counsel a student into an excellent job opportunity in March, why should the college regard his failure to complete the program as an indication of weakness in the program? Certainly all those entering the program had to be carefully followed up.

It is possible that this program, while differing radically from those common to most junior colleges, may represent a trend of thought that will become increasingly evident in the next few years. There is evidence that other community colleges across the nation are becoming ever more cognizant of the need for a new approach to coping with the problems of the disadvantaged. Previous attempts have left much to be desired. The time has come for community colleges to take a long hard look at the education of the disadvantaged.

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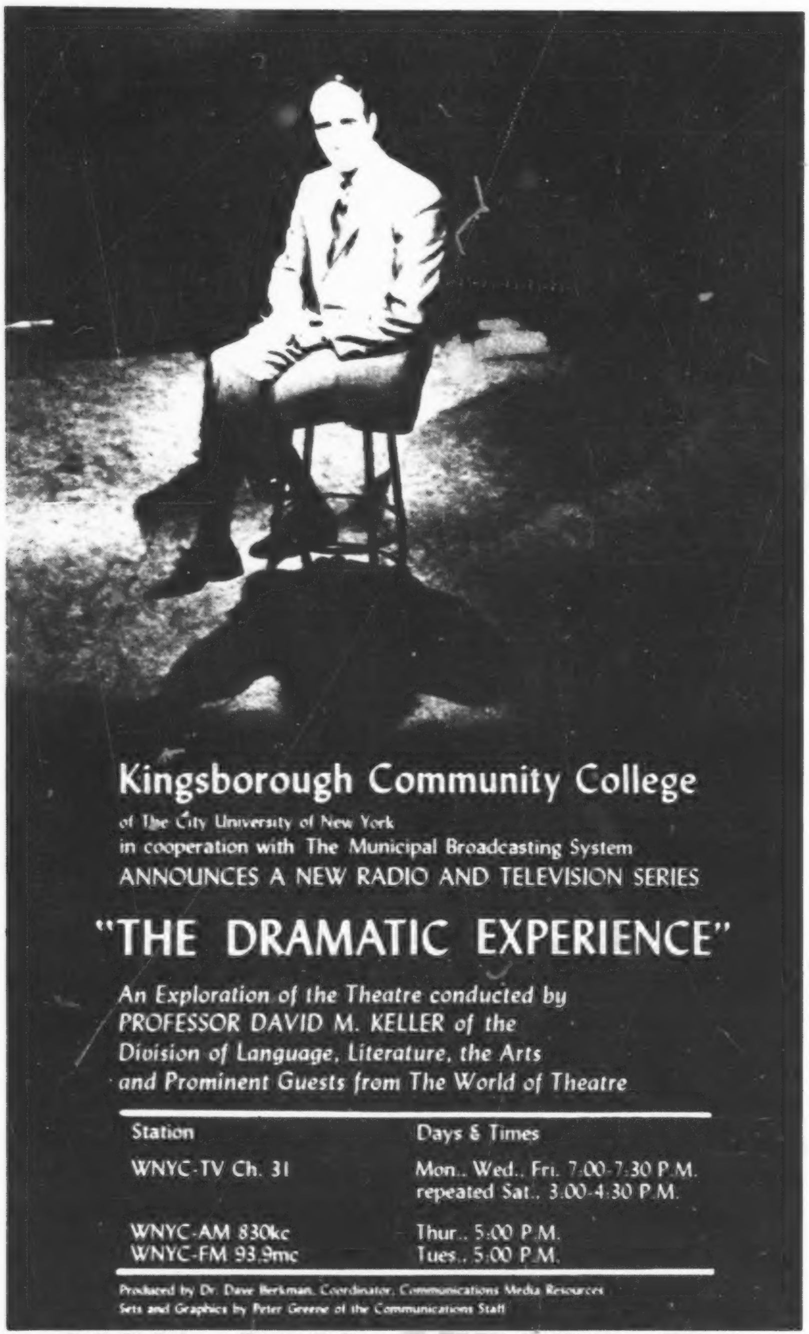


Kingsborough Community College
of The City University of New York
in cooperation with The Municipal Broadcasting System
ANNOUNCES A NEW RADIO AND TELEVISION SERIES

"THE DRAMATIC EXPERIENCE"

An Exploration of the Theatre conducted by
PROFESSOR DAVID M. KELLER of the
Division of Language, Literature, the Arts
and Prominent Guests from The World of Theatre

Station	Days & Times
WNYC-TV Ch. 31	Mon., Wed., Fri. 7:00-7:30 P.M. repeated Sat., 3:00-4:30 P.M.
WNYC-AM 830kc	Thur., 5:00 P.M.
WNYC-FM 93.9mc	Tues., 5:00 P.M.

Produced by Dr. Dave Berkman, Coordinator, Communications Media Resources
Sets and Graphics by Peter Greene of the Communications Staff

YOU CAN AFFORD TV

By Dave Berkman

How One College Produced a "Packaged" TV Series With No TV Equipment And Surprisingly Little Expense

The question is not whether a community college should enter TV production, or how it can do so—but rather, as a community college how it can afford not to.

As I see it, there is no reason why almost any publicly supported, two-year institution should not be making use of TV as the one, practical, economical means by which it can extend itself into tens of thousands of living rooms within the community it serves.

"How?" of course, is the question you're asking—especially if you're associated with one of the 95 per cent-plus of our junior colleges which possess no TV production facilities of its own.

The answer: you don't need them!

And the best proof of this which I know, is demonstrated by the experiences at my institution, Kingsborough Community College of the City University of New York, where we possess not a single TV camera or mike.

As this is written, we at Kingsborough have just finished production of the first half of a half-hour program TV series, "The Dramatic Experience." The series, in eighty-four parts, traces the history and development of theater from both the literary and stagecraft points of view, beginning with ancient Greece, and continuing on through the contemporary *avant garde*. While initially broadcast in New York City as a nonformal, general, cultural offering, it was designed so that it could also serve as the basis of a formal, instructional, credit course at the undergraduate level. Insofar as the New York State Education Department has taken title to the series in return for supplying the video recording tape and has selected the series to be one of its three offerings on the new New York State educational network, it is probable that some institutions in the state will utilize it in this manner.

The "Packaging Procedure"

The means by which we've accomplished this—and the means through which just about any other two-year college can do the same—is by adopting what is known as the "packaging" procedure. In packaging, what you do is preproduce the program, and bring it up to a local station (as we did to the city-owned, Municipal Broadcasting System TV outlet, WNYC-TV), as a complete package for telecast through their studio, recording and/or transmitting equipment.

While I have taken no survey of the nearly 700 operating TV stations in the U.S., I would think that many—and probably most—would react favorably to such a proposal.

This should prove especially true of the commercial, as opposed to the educational, outlets: not because they are any purer in their motives than their noncommercial counterparts, but rather, because they come out financially ahead on such an arrangement. Every commercial broadcast station is obligated to present some amount of nonsponsored, public service fare. They can do this without having to assume the production costs of writing scripts, hiring extra personnel, constructing sets and visual sequences, etc., if such programs are completely preproduced (or packaged,) for the station, so that all the station has to do is place your sets, load their projectors with your film or slides, and turn on their cameras. They meet part of their public service responsibility at no increased cost to themselves. And you, as a community college, provide a community service without having incurred the costs of erecting, operating, maintaining, and staffing a studio facility. (In biology, they call it "symbiosis" —which is defined as a mutually satisfying relationship between two parasites!)

If you still entertain any doubts that what I am proposing here is beyond your capabilities as an institution, let me note that when we began, our facilities for packaging a TV program were practically nil. As a new institution, we possessed none of the graphic, photographic, or shop construction equipment which any of your institutions with a minimal audiovisual setup have probably long included.

But, while we didn't have the facilities when we started—a situation which has, fortunately, improved considerably during the past few months—we did have something else: people with TV backgrounds and orientations.

As communications media coordinator, my responsibilities encompass three areas: traditional audiovisual services, programed instruction, and radio-TV. Most of my background, however, has been in TV, so that my natural inclination was to begin to think almost immediately about how we might make an entry into the medium. Also, I was fortunate in being able to hire as my assistant, the former graphic artist for one of the New York City commercial stations. Still, though, beyond the mass of our respective corpora, we had little else of a physically tangible nature.

We did, however, also have an idea: we would do a series which surveyed the history of drama, and we would do it because, located as we were in the nation's theater capital, we would have access to the top people in the field. But the major reason we would do it, was because we had on our faculty a dynamic young drama professor, David Keller, a graduate of the Yale drama school who, we were convinced, could make an excellent presentation of this material.

A Teacher and an Administration

But this is something which each of you also has: if not a Keller in drama, a Kelley in history; a Cohen in auto repair; or a Conigliaro in biology. That is, each of you has *someone,* whether he is in one of your academic departments or one of your occupational or technical staffs, who can appear before a TV camera, and make an interesting presentation of something which is of interest to a segment of the people in your community, and thereby enlighten thousands, rather than the handful to which he has been limited up until now.

Of course we had something else at Kingsborough: an administration which was quick to see that TV provided the most economical means of reaching the largest number of people. The administration saw that, although the released time it had to provide for Professor Keller as a member of the teaching faculty, and the time which I and my small staff—namely, my assistant, my secretary, plus some student aides—would have to devote to this production, might seem large when looked upon as a lump-sum appropriation, it was infinitesimal when pro-rated on the basis of the number of people who would be reached.

As I have already noted, our facilities during the period in which we produced our initial programs, were practically nil. Much of the work was done with our own home equipment, while we waited for delivery of materials we had ordered for the college. Sets were constructed in my assistant's basement workshop; and there were times when our jerry-built photo-processing set up became totally inoperative so that we ended up processing film placed in tanks in our kitchen sinks. In short, we worked under handicaps that none of your audiovisual people who possess the everyday facilities found at almost any college, would ever have to put up with. And yet we were able to package an average of nearly three programs per week, many of them relatively complex and highly graphic.

I point this out not to blow our own horn—though you may have detected a toot or two—but to show you that if we could do it with what we didn't have, each of you can do the same with all that you do have.

What, then, exactly do you need to embark upon TV production packaging?

I would suggest the following four things:

1. *Someone with a basic knowledge of TV production* who can anticipate all the technical requirements and problems that will have to be faced when the package is brought to the station, so that everything can be set up for rehearsal, and shot, without making any extra demands on the station's facilities or personnel. If no one on your staff presently possesses such a background, your A-V or media director can pick up at least a basic knowledge of production technique through one of the numerous federally sponsored, summer institutes in TV which are given at various colleges and universities throughout the country. Or, you can enter into an agreement with the staff-director whom the TV station assigns to the show, whereby he would come in on his day-off for some set fee to work with and advise the TV instructor and A-V man.

2. *A minimum graphic and photographic production set up* of the type most institutions already possess—and one which is probably much more elab-

orate than what we have had up until this point—to turn out the charts, photographs, models, cell overlays, motion picture footage, and sets, which make a television presentation something more than just radio-with-pictures.

3. *That interesting faculty member* with interesting things to say about a subject which is of interest to people in your local community.

4. *An understanding administration* willing to commit the small outlay of cash, and the much larger one of faculty and staff-released time necessary for such an undertaking.

The Cost Factor

Allow me to dwell on this last factor:

The total time it will have taken us to complete eighty-four one-half-hour programs, production of which is scheduled for completion at the end of the fall semester, will total approximately an academic year-and-a-half (i.e., one semester in advance planning plus one each for the production of each forty-two-program half).

Now most people who are knowledgeable about TV production, will tell you that you should not consider entering it on even the limited scale proposed here, unless you are willing to spend a minimum of $1,000 per show—the $1,000 to include both staff time and materials. In our case, however, ignorance spoke louder than knowledge. We estimate an expenditure which averages out to less than $450 per show—with close to 99 per cent of that in prorated salary time.

Out-of-pocket expenses, by which I mean money spent for supplies not actually on hand as part of our regular supply of graphic and photographic materials stock, came to about $500 for the first forty-two programs—or just over $10 per show!

For example, the materials for the main set used throughout the eighty-four programs, a rather solidly constructed affair composed of flats measuring 40′ x 8′ in the aggregate, and built to withstand the beating which will result from its being erected and struck some forty times (since we shot an average of two shows per studio session), came to less than $150. This included materials for an eight-sided sculpted, logomasque which dominated the setting, and serves as the series' symbol. Construction time for all this, however, totaled over 100 man-hours—but even this averages out to much less than two per program.

As examples of out-of-pocket production costs for some typical programs, let me offer the following: We were able to construct a set for a scene re-creation from Anton Buchner's "Danton's Death," which took place in the Revolutionary Tribunal, and consisted of a prisoner's dock with a backdrop behind it containing a scene painted on canvas which showed a window looking out on what was an accurate portrayal of the Paris skyline of the time, for under $25. We recreated the main bedroom set from Volpone for under $30.

Props? A quill pen costs a dime. (They come now with ball point tips. But, who notices?) A sawed-off cane was donated by a student. A marble can serve nicely as a pearl, etc., etc.

A Nickel Per Person

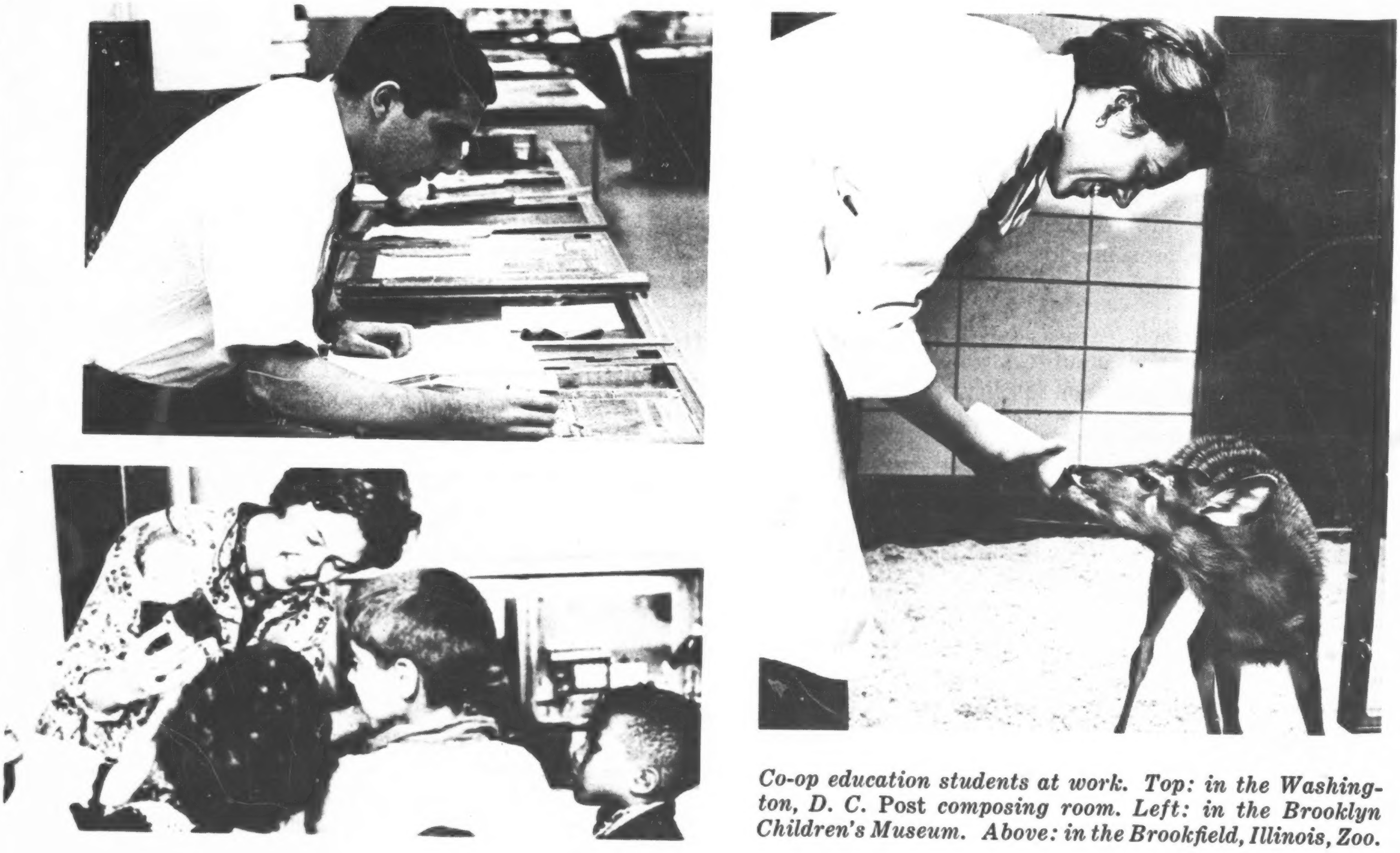
One production technique we made increasing use of, was the narrated ("voice-over") slide-sequence. These varied in length anywhere from two minutes, to one which occupied the whole of one program and traced the history of *La Comedie Francaise* from Moliere to 1967.

These sequences proved particularly effective because we showed them not in the usual manner—that is, as a fixed image projected into the station's fixed-position film and slide camera—but, rather, "live" and in the studio, alternately from two projectors each projecting a 3′ x 4′ image on a large, wall-mounted screen. The result was a constant allusion of motion, since the projected images were large enough so that the studio cameras could move around within each, according to a series of carefully planned movements which were scripted in advance. Because each element within a picture, when shown, thereby correlated exactly with what was on the prerecorded narration, the effect, at times, was almost filmic. Yet, we achieved this sustained visual interest without any of the time, effort, or cost, which shooting and editing motion picture film would have entailed.

I point this out not because we can take any credit for originating anything particularly innovative or new—in this case, we certainly can't—but merely to cite an example of how much good TV can be created for so little money (which, in this case, came to nothing more than the cost of film materials and processing equipment already on hand).

If $450 per half-hour still sounds expensive, let me point out that if it were to reach the extremely small audience of only 10,000—and any series on UHF or almost any VHF station (except in the smallest markets) would have to reach at least double this number regardless of its time of broadcast—the expense comes to less than a nickel per person!

And when, let me ask, did your college last offer adult education, or extension courses on campus, at that cost per student-contact hour???



Co-op education students at work. Top: in the Washington, D. C. Post composing room. Left: in the Brooklyn Children's Museum. Above: in the Brookfield, Illinois, Zoo.

A Remarkable Instrument for Learning

Planned Experiences in the World of Work Can Provide A Plus Element in a Junior College Education

By Mary R. Hunt

The method of "cooperative education" should be applied widely and enhance the quality of education in the ever-increasing multitude of junior colleges.

By "cooperative education" I refer to the regular alternation of periods of study and periods of full-time work, managed in such a way that the classroom illumines the job, and the job stimulates inquiry and insight in the classroom.

In the Antioch College pattern the student studies for three months and works for three months in year-round activity. An adviser works with him to assist in the selection of a job from among several possibilities found by the college. The work should give the student an opportunity to contribute in the world of work, to examine vocations and his own abilities, and help to make him self-reliant. When he returns to his studies, his employer provides written evaluation of his performance and the student writes his own report of his progress. Back on the campus, advisers review these evaluations with the student and together they plan his next steps.

In more than eighty colleges in the United States today, this and other patterns of alternating work and study use work experience for curricular purposes. The method has within it an exposure to the work world that deepens and strengthens understanding even as it dispels illusions. It is applicable both for the student with clear, vocational goals and for the one whose long-range aims are not clear but who wants a chance to explore his abilities.

I would like to review some of the Antioch experience and to suggest how it could be applicable to junior college programs. It is my belief that (1) education for life is stronger if it joins life with education during the college years; (2) the cooperative plan makes for sounder, more meaningful vocational choice and perspective; (3) under the plan young people can have practice in adult roles; and (4) the plan enriches education by providing a broad context for social and individual problems and by encouraging a mature perspective.

Antioch College has used this method for the forty-four years since Arthur Morgan reorganized its program in 1921. What could be more sensible, asked Mr. Morgan and his friend, Charles F. Kettering, than that the traditional period of schooling and the subsequent exercise of vocation should overlap and interact at the place (in a person's life) where they come together. Indeed, said Mr. Kettering, the strength of bond between these two aspects of learning, work and study, is greatly increased by this device much as a lap-welded joint is stronger than the butt-welded one. Today education is never complete. What better way to instill the habit of returning to books and classroom for historical perspective or training in new methods, as the challenge of difficult problems stimulates growth?

The case for work experience concurrent with technical training as a device for vocational exploration and direction is a strong one. Junior colleges like Mohawk Valley Community College, the Loop Branch of Chicago City Junior College, the Borough of Manhattan Community College, are already using the technique in some curriculums. It is difficult to imagine any of the occupational education programs mentioned in Norman Harris' vivid booklet *Technical Education in the Junior College* which would not be greatly strengthened by the interplay of practical, real work experience related or giving background to the field.

Experience to Augment Classwork

Consider a career like that of a policeman, for example, which is one of those listed by Professor Harris. A pattern of work experiences to augment the junior college program in law enforcement might include a period of work in a school camp or a summer camp setting; another period as an orderly in a large metropolitan hospital, preferably with some time in the emergency room; a period as an attendant or a group worker at a mental hospital or a children's home, or a half-way house. Any or all of these, with wise utilization of the experience in the classroom and through counseling, could enhance the sensitivity of the potential law enforcer to the social problems that create the law violations. They could give a background from which to work realistically with a community to take preventive steps to reduce violations.

Or consider the data processing technician and his training. He will learn in his classroom and laboratory instruction how to handle masses of data, but the problems and the material he gets will be "canned" and devoid of meaning unless he can imagine some of the sources of such data. If he has the experience of making a market research survey by door-to-door interview he knows firsthand the variety of human response to the same question; if he codes questionnaires for three months he knows the range of decisions to be made in interpreting responses; if he works as a stock clerk in a factory or a department store he knows the complexity of describing and classifying a hundred thousand items. Each of these pieces of understanding, when examined under guidance, might enlighten his manipulation of processing machines to make him a superior operator.

One could continue the list. The limits of imagination are the only limits to the application of this principle.

Meaningful Participation in Life

In the March, 1965, issue of the *Junior College Journal,* Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., speaks of the need for junior colleges to "provide opportunity for more meaningful participation of youth in the life of the social order . . ." He decries "the apparent view in many educational institutions that while the student is in college his life will be in an environment that (only) simulates the *real* problems."

It has been the experience at Antioch that young people want to assume the responsibilities of adult living. A young Antioch student who worked as a secretary for a social agency on her first co-op job testified this way in the conclusion of her report:

"What have I gained—I, the girl who was going to change the world, who was going to liberate the oppressed people of West Madison Street? I've learned that living in a world of fantasy is fine if one wishes to hide himself from all the ugly things of life and, in the process, from the beautiful things of life as well. One can't contribute anything to the world he lives in if he lives in a make-believe world; he can dream only of changing the world—changing it to fit his own unrealistic specifications. How much more rewarding to face the world and try to meet and work with existing conditions and situations. It's a wonderful feeling to know that one is facing life and working with it, rather than not facing it and working against it."

General Education through Experience

Because Antioch College requires a broad, general education of its students, as well as a sound preparation for some specialized field usually developed further in graduate study, it considers that the work program, too, has a strong general education emphasis. It is stressed, for example, that a job as a salesclerk in a department store or as a nurse's aide or orderly in a hospital has something to say about humanity as a whole, which can be useful to anyone whether he becomes a teacher, a technician, a librarian or a lawyer. The exposure through working alongside people in walks of life a student may never have known before can stimulate examination of

social theory and principles; it can expose one to a variety of psychological types; it may illumine ethical principles; it certainly makes concrete the economic realities if one tries to live on what one earns. This is the general education component, the background against which liberal arts studies broaden the perspective of all human existence.

Again, to illustrate, here is how another student described this kind of experience:

". . . I was a hospital employee. In this capacity many things happened around me with which I was previously unfamiliar. And, as a human being, I reacted to them. I formed impressions, overcame initial trepidation, and attempted to form that outer shell so necessary to the profession . . .

"Many vivid memories of this experience remain with me. I learned to perform tasks that had seemed extremely complex or frightening, but which became commonplace and everyday. I served meals, fed patients, made beds, gave bed baths, took temperatures and pulses, collected and tested diabetic urine, gave enemas, and emptied bedpans. I helped to wrap [the bodies of] several patients [who had died] and took them to the morgue. These were my duties for the quarter. . . . If I had not been there to do these things they still would have been done. The experience is significant to me not for the skills which I mastered but because of the contact with patients that the performance of these tasks brought."

This quotation is typical of statements about the value of such experience. The self-centered student, very much engrossed in his own development, sees his relevance and responsibility to others. He discovers that "No man is an Island, intire of it selfe; every man is a piece of the Continent, . . . I am involved in Mankinde."

Efficient and Transferable Education

Although the main emphasis here is properly on the *enhancement of the education* achieved by the method of cooperative education, mention should also be made of the economic advantage of a school plant which services two student bodies simultaneously. Additional faculty are needed, but not a double number. Efficient use of resources is maximized.

Also, if the junior college can provide insight into vocational interests, then the student may have achieved the motivation to stay in formal classroom training longer, so as to pursue his now-established goal. It should then be pointed out that senior cooperative colleges accept other co-op programs on a regular transfer basis so far as work requirements go. Therefore, there need be no penalty for qualified students who want to continue with co-op programs in liberal arts or engineering or preprofessional curriculums at the senior college level.

I believe that a community interested in making the best use of its resources would do well to consider adding the cooperative education element to its junior college pattern, for it is amply demonstrated that this technique is a remarkable instrument for learning.

By Roger H. Garrison

Leading The Collegiate Horses To Water

Motivation in College Begins When Students Start to Question the Value of Their Wants

Every profession has its shop-talk and education generates more than its share. One of the well-bandied words in our profession is "motivation"—a stiff-legged way of saying "getting students to want to work." We talk endlessly about motivation, underachievers, late bloomers, early wilters, sophomore slumps—employing these tired and essentially meaningless euphemisms to mask our own confusion about the inner driving power of students.

Some people think of motivation as an added ingredient that can be put *into* individuals to make them move, as fuel is put into a motor. But motivation isn't a kind of psychic gasoline; it's an attribute of persons and it is expressed in their willingness to take creative risks, to become committed to or involved in an activity, even at the risk of failure, because they have come to care deeply about it.

Everyone realizes, we assume, that when a student is well-motivated, the academic struggle is nine-tenths won. Such a student studies, he thinks, he produces fine work, he is a joy to his instructors and a cinch for good recommendations after graduation. Such a student needs a teacher more as a guide than as a prod or goad, because he *cares* strongly enough about what he is doing to have thoroughly committed himself to it. He is like the good swimmer who dives cleanly into the water and, fully immersed, literally makes himself a part of the new environment, cooperating with it and letting it sustain him.

But, eager and lively as freshmen and sophomore students are, many of them don't come to college well-motivated toward hard, sustained, intellectual work and increased personal and social responsibility. At least their initial motives often seem to be remote from the central job of immersing themselves purposefully in the often unglamorous work of studying, thinking, writing, and discussing that is at the core of "getting an education."

One of the immediate obligations of a college is to persuade its students to take a real, no-nonsense look at their own current motives to see what they amount to. We are too prone, individually as teachers or institutionally as colleges, to tell students what they should want; to assume that they understand what we mean by education; to scold them either verbally or administratively for not living up to our image of them. What is of first importance is their image of themselves. Do we take enough trouble to find out what that is? We do, after all, have to start with them as they are. We do, that is, if we have any sense and any realistic notion of our professional responsibility.

This is where teachers—good teachers—come in. The teacher's first task, before any of the rest of his work can be successful, is to lead the collegiate horses to water. If we are forgiven for suggesting that our bright, handsome young people are horses, the reference is to an epigram of the American philosopher, William Ernest Hocking. Speaking of college students, he said, "There is many a horse which, *until* it is led to water, does not know that it *wants* to drink."

The key word, of course, is "want." College students, like everyone else, are full of wants: they want to be liked, they want a measure of success, they want "happiness," they want . . . but the list multiplies. And at 18 or 19 or 20, a young person is hardly experienced enough with the world to be fully aware of adult wants and needs that will be more meaningful to him than he can now understand. His education begins to have a bite to it—and begins to involve him, to "motivate" him—when he is led to question the value of his present wants, and to see that there may be other wants of greater meaning than the next weekend, the current boyfriend or girlfriend, the completion of an assignment, the satisfaction of a passing whim, or even getting-married-right-after-graduation, or falling in to that great job with an unlimited future.

Ready to be Motivated

Wanting is a prime motive power for anyone. If we want a thing badly enough, we go after it hard, sometimes recklessly; we stick our necks out, we take risks, we hazard consequences; or we plug doggedly along toward a goal we see as desirable. The problem is for students to find for themselves goals that are worth the risk of personal involvement. It is typical of freshmen and sophomores, for example, to discover, often with some fright and confusion, that what they thought they wanted is, in the brief perspective of a growing maturity, relatively worthless. Recently opened doors to new experiences or new knowledge begin to look far more promising—but more risky: they may forecast frustration, or even failure. It is not easy for a young person to try to develop an interest—and fail. It takes considerable maturity for him to realize that he may be trying the wrong thing. This confusion of wants is more often than not the source of the familiar "freshman fumble," or the "sophomore slump." A confused student is, temporarily, an unmotivated student, a drifting student.

An anonymous nineteenth-century versifier identified the dilemma with sly humor:

> *The centipede was happy until the snail, in fun,*
> *Inquired which leg came after which—*
> *Which worked his mind to such a pitch*
> *He laid astride upon the ditch,*
> *Considering how to run.*

It is at this point of confusion that a student is perhaps most ready to be "motivated" toward more mature wants, more grown-up efforts. And it is at this point, too, where he often begins to recognize an ancient but still valid truth, that nothing can be had for nothing; that the only way to get to the top of a mountain is to climb it. He sees that he may fail; but he also sees that failure can have both dignity and instructive consequences. It is failure to try that is ignominious.

It is at this point, too, that a skillful teacher can get in his most effective work. He can help the student identify the nature of the confusion—not "tell" him how to avoid it or resolve it. He can help the student shift his angle of vision for himself—not tell him where to look. He can suggest possible alternatives for coping with the confusion—not give the student an outline. The teacher's professional duty is to lead the horse to water—not shove his muzzle into it. *The way a student is brought to a subject or a problem is fully as important as the subject itself.* If he is brought to it "by the numbers," so to speak, it will probably remain artificially exterior to his learning self. It is the quality of the student's relationship to the material he is to learn that largely determines what he does learn.

We say, for example, that our job is to "teach students to think." This is a mistake. We cannot teach them to think; only they can do that for themselves. Real thinking is dangerous. That is why so little of it is done. Thinking produces ideas. Genuine ideas are restless, impelling, and something must be *done* about them.

In Thornton Wilder's wise novel, *The Ides of March,* Caesar says, "We are not in relationship to anything until we have enwrapped it in a meaning, nor do we know for certainty what that meaning is until we have costingly labored to impress it upon the object." It is the "costing labor" that *is* the thinking; it is the action of our capacities in response to a reality that constitutes our thinking.

Risky Translation

The basic teaching problem in leading students to think is, therefore, helping them to commit themselves to act with the materials they are to learn. This is the essential translation needed to turn passive, receptive pupil into active, seeking student. The translation is filled with risk because it involves allowing one's self to be open to uncertainty, failure, frustration, and other uncomfortable feelings. For example, when the actress, Helen Hayes, was asked how she created some of her great stage roles, she said: "I think you have to take a chance, and I just seem to have to do all the wrong things in any part before I can get to the right ones. . . . It's such hard work for me—acting—and always has been, to get a good performance. The important thing is to go through in some way, and not to rehearse in whispers. Do anything that comes to your mind, but don't ever let yourself be afraid to try things, because it just might be that something glorious will come out. Of course, nine times out of ten, it's terrible."

Learning to think is learning how to steer one's self, with increasing skill and confidence, through the obstacles and surprises and turnings of what one is experiencing. Since each person brings his total self to experience, he faces the need to adapt some of his established responses, to re-examine some built-in assumptions, to modify previously held opinions. This immediately brings frustrations.

What adaptation is demanded of me?

How many of my assumptions must I discard?

How differently must I act to cope with this?

These are the unspoken questions. Appropriate answers to them are completely individual and go deep into the already-built personality structure of the learning person. It is this fact, incidentally, that indicates the futility of any one "teaching method," or any single "successful device." Teaching, like learning, is a fluid, changing, developing process of constant reorganization of one's attitudes, assumptions, and operational philosophy.

And it is this self-reorganization in the midst of action that teachers are employed to help students accomplish. When the changes begin the student starts to move; to be "motivated." Fearful, perhaps, but determined, he plunges in—at last. He takes a committee job that looked too big. He reads the book that seemed too formidable or too dull or too remote from his interests. He tackles the research paper that appeared to be an endless job. He starts over and re-does the botched-up project because "it isn't good enough for *me!*" And like the swimmer who goes in over his head but comes up swimming, he begins to discover that he's enjoying himself.

That is the great motivation: the inevitable bonus that is always associated with real risk. The bonus is joy, or enthusiasm. Joy comes when we have used our own powers to the limit and found them sufficient to a hard task. We see this in its most uninhibited form in small children who, having tried and failed and tried again, suddenly cry out, "Look, look, I can do it, I can do it!" Joy is the reward, the triumph, really, of the youngster on the bicycle who one day wheels nonchalantly down the street, arms folded, shouting, "Look, Daddy, no hands!"

This kind of joy is not in the least superficial. It cannot be injected from without by a teacher or an institution. It never results from work which is too easily within a student's ability, or from work which is too rigidly supervised.

Joy is the emotion which comes when a student realizes that with his own unaided powers he can do what he has attempted. There are few emotions to compare with this. It is too wonderful to have only once—or twice. It is, in truth, the affirmation of his own separate and valuable being. More than any artificial apparatus of motivation, any push or demand from teachers or parents, this jo[illegible]ecome an imperative drive within a student [illegible]ence as often as possible the best that is in hi[illegible]t is for this that we justify our existence as educational institutions.

Then, perhaps more especially for women students, there often develops added motivation. Once committed and involved, women, more, I think, than men, persist in seeking for value. They want, and rightly, to know what their effort is worth—first to themselves and then to other people.

Some time ago a large company ran an advertisement titled, "The Original Computer." The lead paragraph, under the picture of a woman's head, said, "Somewhere in that head, among the bobbypins, the hairdo, the perfume, and the problems, there is a thing that makes calculations and decisions. This tricky little thinking center is the oldest instrument of progress in the human race; it is never satisfied with today's cut of meat or cut of skirt. Day in and day out, moment by moment over the years, this feminine computer is concerned with one thing above all others: *Value.*"

The advertisement referred to material things, but the message is valid just the same: when a woman is convinced of the value of something, whether material or less tangible personal, she wants it for herself and for others. And what she wants, she goes after. She commits herself to the work and the frustration and the more-than-occasional failures because she sees the goal as "worth it." Robert Southey, the English poet, said, "What will not woman, gentle woman, dare when strong affection stirs her spirits up!"

I do not mean to suggest, of course, that men students ignore questions of value; but I am suggesting that certain emphasis in the teaching-learning transaction may well be different for women than they are for men.

Questions of Worth and Value

Questions of worth and value are at the center of what we call a liberal education. If a college is doing its job, its constant effort should be to lead students to a widening awareness of what, in human life, is "worth it." The questions of worth are already in the student's mind.

What to do after college, and why?

Is a "good job" enough?

Am I ready for marriage—or do I just "want" to get married?

What do I want the next forty years of my life to mean?

How can *I* contribute something good and lasting to my fellow men?

Such a widening awareness of larger-than-adolescent concerns, of soon-to-come significant choices, is the real reason for all the study of literature and science and history. All of these have something important to contribute to a student's wider field of vision; to his more mature vision of his personal relation to a world of real choices—as distinct from adolescent fantasies.

A story is told of the American artist, Lorado Taft, who, for a summer vacation, took a cabin in the lonely hills of the far west. Each evening, the day's activity finished, Taft and his family sat on the porch to watch the sunset flare and glow and soften into purple twilight.

One evening, when the sunset lit the mountains with particular splendor, the young local girl employed as a maid by the Tafts, asked hesitantly, "Could I git my folks over here to see the sunset?" Mr. Taft said kindly to her, "Why, Jean, your folks live in these mountains, and every day for years they have seen the sunsets."

"No, we ain't," said the girl softly. "We ain't never seen the sunset until you learned us how."

That is as good a description of "leading the collegiate horses to water" as I know.

By Bonnie Rubinstein

SAY SOMETHING IN ENGLISH

A Teacher of Remedial English Needs a Portmanteau Filled with Ideas For Untraditional Approaches

One warm day in spring a few years ago, I was working at my desk in a portable office on the school grounds of Merritt College. The office was poorly ventilated, so the doors were propped open with desk chairs. I heard voices approaching, voices too young to be part of the regular college population. I looked up to find three little girls, ages ranging somewhere between eight and ten, peering in at me through the doorway.

"You a secretary here?" one asked.

"No, I'm a teacher here," I replied. I could see I didn't fit their frame quite right. The girls registered surprise and another of them now more interested and bold ventured:

"What do you teach?"

"English," I offered, expecting some form of groan to rise up from my new friends. But they only looked puzzled and the third one, unable to contain her curiosity, concluded the interview with the most marvelous suggestion:

"You teach English? Say something to us in English."

Each time I recall this incident, I smile to myself, because I feel that these children in their charming naiveté revealed what so many students of somewhat more advanced vintage and supposed seasoning really feel about English. That is to say, it is basically a foreign tongue which they as college students still have not managed to master. Many of them are convinced that if they can just learn those rules which have "bugged" them for a decade or more in the lower grades, they can pass out of English, forget it and its nasty old grammar and proceed with the business of their respective worlds.

Rarely do any of my students think of English as something they are all, in a sense, experts at, something they use and have used every day for years to think and listen in, read and write in. English is to many a body of exhortations, wrapped in a winding sheet, presented to them year after year in an increasingly mummified state, and eventually accorded proper entombment somewhere in the catacombs of the psyche. English is not something alive, their language, their bridge to the past, a grip on the present and possibly their gift to the future, but rather something quite divorced from the parts of their experience that matter.

The incident that spring with the three girls stuck in my mind and began to send out roots. I am certain that it was this experience, in large part, which moved me to open my remedial English class last spring at Laney College with a little free association test. I read off ten words and asked them to jot down the first word which popped into their minds in connection with each.

It was their response to only one of these words which really concerned me and this was "English." When the class and I put their reactions to this word on the board after the test, we needed no psychometrist to interpret the results. Words such as "trouble," "hate," "fear," "help!" "ugh," "joke" predominated; other words such as "grammar," "spelling," "verbs," "nouns," and "test" figured prominently in their feedback. Only a few responses, "language," "reading," "speak," hinted that the testee might cherish some idea of English as a living medium of communication, rather than a bag of labels or a remembrance of past disasters.

Fear of English

Using this little free association test as a springboard to discussion, we stopped and considered together why students should "fear" and "hate" English. It developed, not surprisingly, that most of their previous experiences in classes devoted to this subject had been associated with defeat, discouragement, or, at the least, boredom. Despite their admission slips to college, their new notebooks, their shiny morning faces, many of them, I was certain, thoroughly expected to continue this syndrome of dislike and failure.

When asked why they were taking this course, many indicated quite openly their feelings about remedial English in particular: "I'm too dumb to take any other English." "I have always disliked English." "My chances are slim . . . I figured it would be easier with a woman than a strict old man." "If I could get out of taking English I probably would, for I don't find it that interesting." "I'm taking this course because I have to take it; I don't wish to take it."

Perhaps I may seem to be belaboring the obvious, but I have found that it is the obvious that sometimes escapes unseen. Being a student of English, and a very good student at that, in a college or university does not necessarily equip one to be an effective teacher, particularly in what may be the alien field of remedial English. Confronted by several such sections of this type of class with its reluctant population, teaching two or three other couses involving different preparation, grading mountains of compositions weekly, it is remarkable that we in junior college English do as well as we do. But so little time remains to reflect on the process we are engaged in and to search for the meaning of what we are trying to do—at least this has been my experience. So if much of what is being said here is elementary, I must beg your kind indulgence; perhaps I am what is known as a late bloomer. But what one discovers for himself always seems fresh and exciting.

I cannot help but marvel at how I, conscientious and well intentioned as are so many English teachers, had for so many semesters labored diligently to cure ills without having the vaguest notion of their etiology. In this search, I have found it extremely valuable, particularly with remedial students, to start the semester by bringing some of these fears and dislikes out in the open. For many of these people, beginning an English class is like returning to the scene of the crime. They have come, seen, and failed on too many occasions already. The teacher of sociology or anthropology, for instance, may not encounter this hostility to his subject matter, although a student may carry his low self-esteem wherever he goes, which brings me to another important matter facing many an English instructor.

Daniel Sanchez

I have never read anywhere that fear and dislike of what one is doing coupled with low self-esteem generally lead to success. I have already quoted some of the students' feelings about English. Here is a response to the question, "Who am I and why am I here?"

> Daniel Sanchez is not a very intelligent person, nor does he have confidence in himself. Lack of education is the goal which pushes him forward, and the want to get ahead. To be a commercial artist is his goal, but to succeed he has to go through many years of strenuous college life. Between his goal and his future is a desire to have a more active part in family life. Now is the time in his life when he wants to paint, remodel, dine and do those hobbies which he enjoys.

Daniel Sanchez, a frail boy of Mexican background with artistic ability was so inaccurate in his estimation of himself as to dramatize in the extreme the critical barriers in my class. Very quickly, I became aware of what I believed to be a striking disparity between his intelligence, sensitivity, actual performance, and his view of himself and I set out to do whatever was within my power to recondition this self-image, at least where English was concerned. I asked him directly after I had worked with him in class for some time, why he lacked confidence. He gave the standard reply. He had done poorly in grammar in high school, had shifted schools, and had lacked interest.

It was this same fear-ridden, self-deprecating student who was able to write in the final month of the semester the following critique of a visit to the Kinetic Sculpture Exhibit at the University of California. It is printed here in full just as it was written by him. It so happened that Daniel Sanchez turned out the most proficient prose in his class.

> *Kinetic Sculpture Exhibit*
> Tuesday, April 26, 1966, at University of California
> Chosen by personal interest
>
> By kinetic sculpture the artists refer to sculpture that is in motion. The exhibit was a mass of moving objects made of different moving objects made of different metals combined with electrical, gravitational, and magnetic forces, which were the stimulants of motion. The exhibit was held in a small auditorium. The sculptures were mounted on walls, placed on the floor, and suspended from the ceilings. While in motion the objects (sculptures) made noise and had some kind of optical effect. For example, one particular sculpture which had an audiovisual effect was a small table model radio, which by the way had no shell, but was built into a wire and metal frame that had a rotating feather on the top of it that played while the radio stations were constantly changing.
>
> The sculpture which particularly caught my eye was a large replica of a human lower leg and foot which stood about four feet high, made of a wire construction with turning wheels and discs driven by belts and motors. The symbolism of the leg sculpture was the most interesting thing to me. The turning motors and wheels within the leg reminded me how complex an organism is the human body and how easy it is for something to go wrong. To take this symbolism one step further and combine it with moral beliefs, I found that within each rotation of the wheels a flexible piece of tin would strike eight different spokes with a pause between the first and last spoke, thus symbolizing the days of the week, Sunday a day of rest not being honored by men of today, so he works constantly with a pause to reassure himself that just a few more days and he will be finished; or the common laborer of today who works eight hours, pauses for a coffee break, and then struggles for another eight hours.
>
> The sculptures which I did not like nor consider kinetic sculpture were a picture of a man with superimposed eyes that were greatly enlarged and another of the Eiffel Tower gradually crumbling. The pictures did not move, they produced no sound nor were they three dimensional like the rest of the sculptures. Another aspect of the exhibit which I did not like was that the sculptures competed with each other; the exhibit sounded like a small mechanical factory. It was difficult to focus my attention on one sculpture for any length of time without being attracted by the sound of another. By having the exhibit in a larger building, I think this could have been corrected.

> I strongly recommend the exhibit to all, especially the grade school, college, and art students. There is a lot to be seen that is beneficial. The imagination that the artist put into his sculpture is beneficial to the young (grade school), since they may see the possibilities of what can be done with gravitational, electrical, and magnetic forces. The art students may benefit from what can be done with these forces too, but design and color are more significant to them. The human replica of a leg was greatly enlarged which is an "attention getter" used by commercial artists which is an example of design. The spinning wheel which made one feel he was dropping through an endless tunnel is an example of how color creates an optical effect and stunning design.
>
> The sculptures in motion exhibited could very well be the basis of ideas for the young viewers in his understanding of "forces" and a good stimulant of the imagination, or to the artist who gets to see what others in his field are doing to express themselves. The spectator viewing the Kinetic Sculpture Exhibit may see symbolism, which is significant to him and others around him, as I did in the larger than life wire structure of the human leg.

The teacher's job as I conceive it with a student like this is primarily to help him see what is *there* in its already articulate form, to get him to recognize how proficient he already is in English.

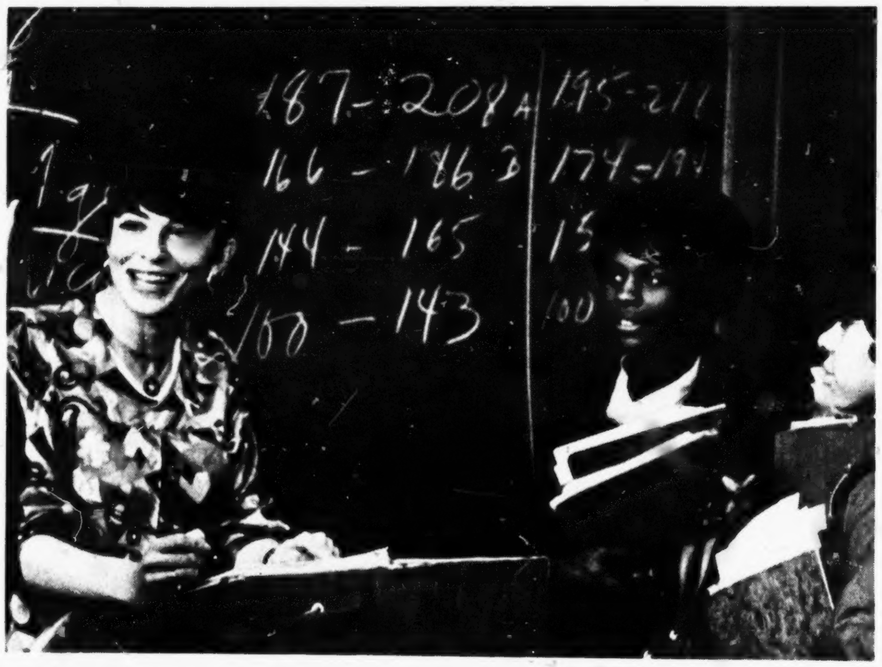
Alvin Johnson

Another response was made by a Negro student, Alvin Johnson, recently discharged from the army. The corrections are mine:

> I am put in the vale (fail) catigorie. I have a spiritual feeling with live (life) inside of me know to me and call by man as a soul. I am able to feel a variation of feeling and emotions. But in material cost and productions, chemically I am worth northing, but one sixth of a dollar. But to me and mines, their is no price the world could put up for me. I am taking this course for two reasons. One for my major and the other reason to broaden my outlook on life and its surrounding.

Truthfully, I must admit to feeling a chill every time I read these words, incorrectly spelled as they are. I felt, from the moment I first read these lines, privileged to be made party to such a communication. Here, unlike Daniel Sanchez, is someone who says he is worth something. But one senses, nonetheless, the fierce fight for dignity and worth waged every moment. Here too is the awareness of the external judgment of failure which he is struggling not to accept, at least in its entirety.

Author Rubinstein with students from her English class.



Unlike Daniel Sanchez, Alvin Johnson did have real problems in spelling, punctuation, and grammar to which we devoted attention in the course of the semester and which were, of course, not wholly eradicated. But with support and encouragement and a growing awareness that he had a great deal to communicate and the essentials to say what he honestly felt, he wrote many pieces which delighted and informed his classmates, me, and, most important, himself. Here is an example of this writing:

> *Negro Servicemen in Vietnam*
>
> Darkness is beginning to lift on this new day. I've been dug in this foxhole all night. Ever since my patrol got pinned down, I haven't had any sleep, Lord knows how long.
>
> Since I've been in this hole, I have begun to think for the first time, why? Why am I here fighting? I know they said for freedom, but freedom for who? A people I know nothing about? I am sent here to wage a contest with death; yet I haven't freedom myself back home.
>
> Sure I'm patted on the back and given a few medals and spoken to, "That's a good job boy, keep it up." But when this is all over and I get out, okay, I will be the same Nigger, as I fall into the ranks of our society, rejected and abused, because of my skin color; yet I am looked for and called on to fight for this land called Vietnam, or be courtmartialed and go to jail.
>
> No, this is not me, nor my experience but this is what's running in the minds of American Negro fighting men. "Why am I here? Should I fight for a people, for their freedom, and I don't have freedom myself?" I say: "No!" This is not a war that the Negro should participate in.
>
> I think all the Negroes should be at home trying to get freedom for ourselves, our people, in the Northern cities and behind the cotton curtain, wishing for one thing, freedom; to do what we want and feel that it's right, to have a say in the government, go to a school of our choice.
>
> I will go along with war which will threaten the United States opposition, and fight just as hard as the next man. If we were to go to war with Russia or Red China, I'll join tomorrow. But this war is none of ours.
>
> By no means is the Negro a coward, for our record of valor has been displayed down through history. No, we're not cowards, but we are tired of being used!

At the risk of overstating my point and losing my audience, I would like to quote from a letter I received from another student:

> I came to your class a reject from another class of higher qualification. The feeling of rejection really hurt my pride. . . . You really gave me confidents when you said to the class that your spelling isn't superior. . . .

> Mrs. Rubinstein, there is something I think you never realized about me from my participation in the class discussion and that is I haven't very much confidents in myself. For doing anything well. I have always felt subordinate to others. I must say at this time that I feel equal and sometimes a little above average in things I do now.

And these words were written by one of the most poised and orally facile members of the class.

As an English teacher of some five years duration, I am only now beginning to understand and define what I feel to be my correct function in the classroom. And I am not demanding that all English teachers must follow suit. But I know there are many like myself, uneasy with the role of glorified proofreader and teacher primarily of rules—descriptive, prescriptive, or transformational—who see the inadequacy of this stance dramatized with low achievers. So it has been my intent to discover ways and means of touching lost chords in students and reconditioning association with English and reversing, whenever possible, the negative self-fulfilling prophesy so many carry with them into class. This approach should not be construed as an attempt to preempt the psychoanalyst's couch, by any means. One can teach skills and increase human power in many ways. Certainly this is what Hughes Mearnes, John Holt, Sylvia Ashton-Warner, and many others struggled for.

10-Minute Writing

One project which did some unlocking of barred gates and seemed to profit student and teacher alike was something we can call, for lack of a more swinging name, the "10-Minute Writing." Many of you may be doing something similar in your classes. But it developed in particularly interesting ways in our class last year. The initial ideas for this exercise emerged from several sources; primarily my own feeling that the method involving single sentence refinements is not appropriate, at least initially, with this group. These students, plagued with what I jokingly refer to as "verbal constipation" (in written forms) need to write freely on a variety of subjects without fear of reprisal by red pencil. Further, S. I. Hayakawa enthusiastically described a similar exercise and, finally, an observation of a technique used at Synanon impressed me greatly.

Synanon, the organization devoted to reorganizing the lives of drug addicts and others with "acting out character disorders," uses talk to combat drugs. Talk is a way of life. For example, after lunch every noon and on some evenings, a Synanon is held which involves throwing an idea on the board and letting members and visitors react to it. Or in some sessions, they declare a free choice and anybody can go to the platform and talk on whatever subject interests him. The audience then offers criticism or commendations. Many of these addicts had been frightened, withdrawn people all their lives, yet they got up, faced the group and talked fluently.

Thus, I decided to throw an idea on the board, bring in a painting, an interesting object or play music for the first ten minutes of each class meeting. But instead of talking, which many remedial students do quite well, the class members were asked to write their reactions. They were encouraged to write as much as possible in the time allotted without stopping to worry about spelling, punctuation or grammar. They were instructed *not* to use the dictionary and interrupt their flow of words. If they could not spell a word, they were told *not* to try to replace it with another, which many, I learned, tend to do, but to approximate it on paper, circling to let the reader know the writer was unsure here.

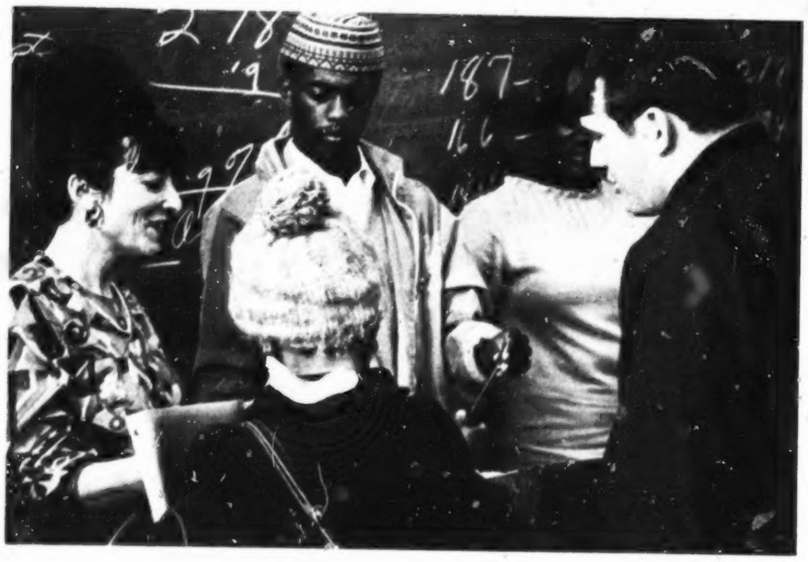
Sometimes a quote was used such as the one from Thoreau: "It takes two to speak truth—one to speak and one to listen" or their own words, "I know what I mean but I can't explain it" or a parable, a children's story, a Zen tale, a bit of news: "McNamara announces 20,000 more men will be sent to Vietnam. What is your reaction?" A painting such as "Christina's World" by Andrew Wyeth, something provocative by Magritte, a phrase such as "culturally deprived"—these and many other bits and pieces from life afforded material for writing.

Thinking on Paper

Initially, some people wrote very little and sat hunched self-consciously in their seats. But as this became a kind of class ritual, more and more student engaged themselves until everyone was writing something and many could cover a page or more in the time. Those who explained that they were not writing because they were "thinking" were urged to get down what they were thinking on paper—to think on paper, as it were, even if it meant writing, "I don't get this" or "This means nothing to me; I don't dig."

At first, I did not pick up their responses every day but let several weeks elapse before reading them as a group. I returned this first batch with ideas scattered here and there, no technical corrections. When I read something particularly exciting or curious, as became more and more the case, I would suggest that the student develop the idea in longer form. And some very good essays did grow from these seedlings.

Then, the class and I stumbled onto a preferable approach to this exercise. A student in my class had suggested the class take a field trip but we did not know what would most interest the class as a whole.



One morning, I arrived in the classroom after the students had assembled, and this man informed me that *he* had given the 10-minute for the day, "What do you do for entertainment?" He then picked up the writings, commented on them and gave them back to me to read at the next class meeting. It was from this point on that I used, on most occasions, student offerings, taking my turn only when I wanted to get some specific information or utilize the writing for some classwork during the period. The student responsible for the assignment also assumed responsibility for commenting on these papers which I too read and remarked on if I felt so inclined. The new approach involved students more directly and guaranteed more interchange among students and more direct feedback. Most of the time, there was no problem getting volunteers who knew a class meeting in advance that their contribution was due.

Direct Student Questions

The students asked much more direct, often personal questions of each other than I would have dared to have asked them. "Why study etymology? Isn't it a bore?" "Some things happen in life to shatter your confidence and leave your personality out of tune. Discuss." "As a child, what dreams did you have and what happened to them?" "If you can communicate, why take English classes anyway?" And their comments to each other on these papers were also delightful to read, often thoughtful and sympathetic but, at times, much harder hitting and direct than what a teacher in his position might chance to say.

Sometimes the 10-minute contribution marked the entrance of a student into the classroom family from which he had remained estranged. This was the case with one large, ungainly, epileptic boy who had generally sat self-consciously over in the back corner of the room, a green beret pulled over his eyes. He brought in a print of Picasso's "Guernica." That day everyone read aloud his writing, because we were discussing differing perceptions as a problem in communication. He saw his contribution occupy fifty minutes of class time. After this, he wrote much more, his spelling which had been hideous, spontaneously improved, and he participated in class discussions.

Electronic music, jazz, newspaper ads, Biblical quotes, a poem from *Black Dialogue,* an original poem by a student—these and many more experiences students introduced to each other and enriched the class thereby in these 10-minute beginnings.

Teacher Writes, Too

Then, it occurred to me that since the students wrote for me when I put forth a 10-minute idea, I should reciprocate and write for the student when he was the contributor. So, on most occasions when I did not have to use those ten minutes for some desperate last minute prep, I too wrote, grappling as diligently with the problem before us as did the students and I too was subjected to the scrutiny of the reader's eye, which, I must say was often kind, although I was informed by several that my handwriting was fairly unreadable.

Many of the students found reading the teacher's views interesting and many registered surprise that a teacher should think the way a student sometimes does. I feel I became less a stock type and more a human being. Some wrote back what fun it was for them to have a chance to comment on a teacher's paper for a change.

One Stimulus, Many Responses

In sum then, the 10-minute experiences were very exciting for teacher and most students alike. These writings served to dramatize how one idea, one visual or aural stimulus can arouse so very many different, yet equally valid responses in people. We discussed how no two people, like no two fingerprints, were identical and that this makes life exciting but is often the source of communication difficulties; i.e., we forget this and assume the other guy's reactions are just like ours. These writings brought this home as little else I have tried ever did.

Also, the students got to know each other better and became more curious about each other. They wondered why Mr. Jones said this while Miss Brown said that. And they sincerely wanted to know what their classmates felt about some of the quests that have puzzled men through the ages. "What is happiness?" for instance. One Negro student who entered the class with downcast eyes and sat uncomfortably twisted together in a back row seat in fear and trembling of being called upon, was the only class member to have two shots at this exercise; it was with his question that we terminated the semester: "What does life mean to you?"

Perhaps I should mention here how more can be done with this project in terms of longer essays. One day, I put the symbol "H_2O" on the board. The initial reaction was surprise but by this time the students were becoming conditioned to expect anything. Only one student, educated in Mexico, did not recognize this as the chemical sign for water but, was, nevertheless, able to write at length on this problem of nonmeaning of symbols. We spent the entire class period utilizing their responses to show how very much they have to say potentially about so many subjects. As they watched me transcribe their associations with water on the board, many laughed to see how many obvious ideas they had left out of their own papers.

These ideas included the chemical properties, water's uses, its relation to biology, geography, its place in sports, hospitals, health, cooking, social problems of water shortage as in New York, the California battle, fluoridation, personal experiences, references in books and films such as *Moby Dick, Mr. Roberts, The Ship of Fools,* military uses of water and so on. Then we focused our attention on one of these categories, set up a problem and, in one class wrote a rough draft of an essay on the use of water in hospitals and, in another class, water as a recreational playground.

At the end of the course, I passed out a questionnaire about the relative value of various activities conducted in class that semester. The students were asked: "What single experience stands out in your mind?" I received such replies as the following:

"The most exciting experience was mostly the 10-minute writings. They were fun to write on and it was fun looking at the different ways of communicating."

"Writing without having any concern about if its right or not helped release the brake on my inner feelings."

"The most helpful I found was the way you made us write those 10-minute writings. This forces us to write more and think harder."

"The response to my 10-minute idea, being able to read everyones."

Then, on another page where all the class projects were listed and students were asked to check degrees of value, almost all checked very interesting and very helpful for the 10-minute writings. The few who lacked enthusiasm were largely students who rarely attended and, therefore, did not quite get with it, so to speak.

At the end of the course, I read the students the Scandinavian folk tale *Nail Soup* which tells of the man who comes to an old woman's house asking for a meal. She is ungiving and unwilling to help him out, pleading her own poverty as an excuse. But he persists and says he has a nail for making soup, if she will only provide the water. Then he requests a few vegetables, meat, etc. and the woman, by now curious, begins to volunteer ingredients from what proves to be a well-stocked larder. The soup, in short, is a great success, tasty and full-bodied and the two go their separate ways the next morning great friends with full stomachs. The story's relevance to themselves the students readily see. The English course is in them, not out there somewhere in the wild blue yonder and the problem is tapping their own natural resources and then refining and sharing these. The 10-minute writing project was one of these nails in the soup and it was, in part, through this that the class was fed.

Changing the Equation

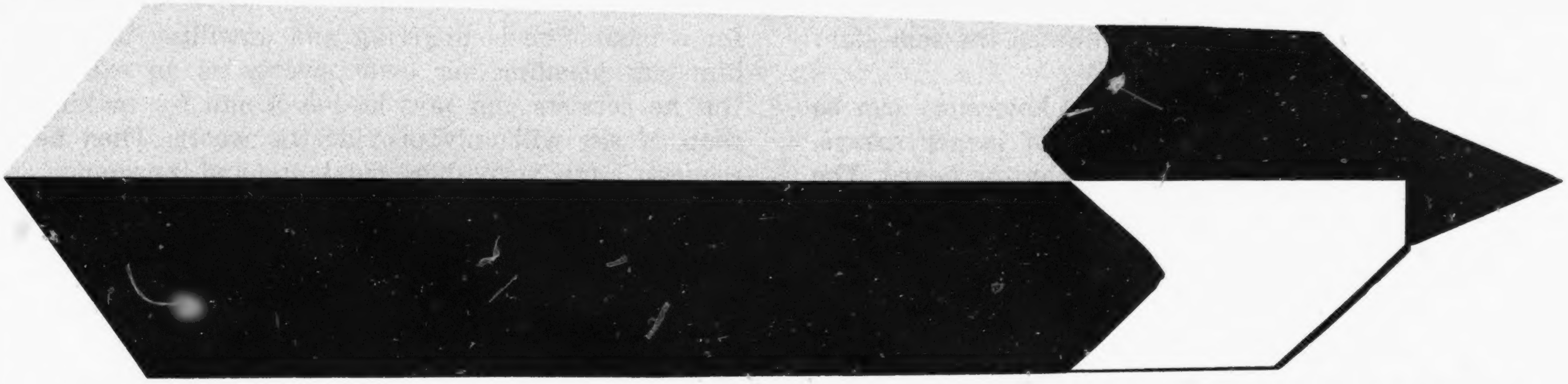
I do not mean by this article to appear as some kind of swami or faith healer, nor do I mean to suggest that all souls were saved that semester or that this single experiment managed to solve all manner of difficulties experienced by my students. But a portmanteau filled with such untraditional approaches can, I believe, be of great value to the teaching of English, particularly when the bulk of students have not achieved with more traditional methods. This could be a step in the right direction.

The right direction, as far as I personally am concerned is the direction of *salvage,* which is supposedly one of the junior college's prime functions. Yet we either do not have a clear notion of how to salvage or we are not really committed to the idea in the first place, as most of us know who teach the large numbers who revolve out of our doors assisted in their exit by the math and English departments in particular.

If, in fact, the purpose of remedial courses is not to remedy but to eliminate, let us not deceive ourselves with euphemisms. If, on the other hand, we are really there to harness human power; then the areas for fresh thinking and experimentation are vast and very exciting. Certainly Richard Bossone's recently published report on remedial students in twelve California junior colleges points out confusions and inadequacies of current programs and registers the need for revisions.

By placing spelling, punctuation, and grammar concerns in their proper perspective as part of a much larger picture of human communication, and by allowing the students more exploration of the territories of their own minds and those of their classmates, perhaps it is possible to change the equation: English equals hate, fear, and "ugh."

Say something in English? Gladly.



TEACHING WRITING SKILLS IN LARGE CLASSES

An Experiment at Indian River Junior College in Florida Indicates That Class Size Up to Fifty-Six Is Not a Significant Factor in Learning

By Harold H. Hopper and Helen Keller

> ***I was convinced that better results would come from the smaller classes but my mind was opened to other possibilities by the experiment.***
>
> ***I was psychologically negative toward the prospect of facing the immediate challenge of grading a mass of papers and returning them quickly enough for effective instruction, until I realized that the total number of students was no larger than I normally teach.***
>
> ***I felt sure that the students in the smaller groups would report more readily to conferences but the final instructor-student evaluations did not substantiate this.***
>
> ***I am convinced that one class (as opposed to two small ones) helps prevent the instructor from repetitious boredom; furthermore, he will have additional time for grading or for personal conferences.***
>
> ***There was no significant difference in the development of writing skills between small and large groups.***

The comments above are instructor reactions to Project Eh-101, an experiment in teaching freshman English, which evolved from an 86 per cent increase in enrollment at Indian River Junior College, Fort Pierce, Florida, in the fall of 1965. The experiment involved three instructors and 274 students (screened only on the basis of high school English grades). The students were divided into three sections of fifty-six students each and four sections of twenty-eight students each. Dual evaluative procedures were used: analyses of two carefully selected essays and instructor-student evaluations.

On August 23, 1965, all the students in Project English 101 were required to furnish a writing sample done in class, an uninstructed analysis of "The Dark of the Moon," by Eric Sevareid.

On December 3, after seventeen weeks of training in how to write clear, concise, meaningful, stimulating, and fully developed prose, the final writing analysis was given: "Autumn Rites on the Gridiron" by Thomas Hornsby Ferril. Both essays were graded, using the general scoring standard for English composition in use in the English department.

A student evaluation form was completed by each student at the end of the semester. It was originally planned to make tests of significant differences between the large and the small groups, without retaining the identity of the individual teachers. Initial results indicated, however, that the usefulness of the study would be somewhat enhanced by treating the large and small classes of each teacher independently. The results established that, given the same quality of instructors, program, and students involved in this experiment, class size up to fifty-six does not seem to be a significant variable, in the learning of writing skills.

Initial Steps

Approximately 300 students who earned high school English grades of C or better were placed in the control and experimental groups in the following manner: Teacher A was assigned two sections of twenty-eight students and one section of fifty-six; Teacher B was assigned one section of twenty-eight and one section of fifty-six; Teacher C had one section of twenty-eight and one section of fifty-six.

To insure that the groups were comparable, the scheduling was accomplished through the use of stratified random sampling.

The instructors employed the same methods in the small groups as they used in teaching the large groups.

The measure of course effectiveness was decided by the three instructors. It was planned to ask all students to analyze an essay before receiving any formal instructions in how to do this and then at the end of the course to ask these same students to analyze another essay. On both the pretests and the post-tests the students would be given a coded test paper and the grading of the exams would be done anonymously by each teacher.

Realizing that other factors (in addition to the grade one accomplishes) are important, the administration asked the students and the teachers in both large and small groups to evaluate their group experience. This evaluation by both students and teachers seemed particularly important for, even though small class size might prove superior, large class size might be preferred by the participants. A report by the students and/or faculty that the large class was not desirable would make the widespread implementation of large class sizes a debatable procedure in spite of statistical differences in accomplishment.

Teachers' Attitudes

Prior to the beginning of the experiment, the instructors were unfavorably subjective. Four years of successful work with small classes in the department led two instructors to be skeptical. A teacher who activiated much individual counseling wondered at the effect of large classes upon the conference process. These instructors thought that an attempt to teach communications skills to a large group would violate one of the advantages of attendance at a junior college—a close student-instructor relationship. There was concern over discussion in the large groups but agreement that the unit on logic would go very well in either group.

Only one instructor, new to the English faculty, professed to have an open mind. "I had no qualms," she professed, "although I felt that, for both student and instructor, the experience of a close intellectual relationship in the smaller groups would be more rewarding."

The feelings of all instructors following the experiment were constructively objective but instructors and administrative staff were strong in the conviction that excellent instruction within the framework of a well-defined program was the important factor.

In brief, in spite of a strong predilection for small classes as the motivation for success in learning writing skills, all three instructors realized, by the end of the program, that large class size could be eliminated as a deterrent to learning. This judgment was the result of the following findings and procedures.

The Results

Teacher A had forty-eight students who came from two small classes, which took not only the pretest but also the post-test. With these forty-eight students from small classes, forty-eight students were selected in a random manner from the large class. A test of the difference between the large and small class scores on the pretest revealed, in Teacher A's case, that the small groups scored significantly higher in the analysis of Eric Sevareid's essay than did the students from the larger group. This difference was significant at the 5 per cent level. The results of the second test, however, showed that the difference between the large and the small groups was not significant. A test of the significance of the improvement in both the small group and the large group revealed that this improvement was highly significant. To see if there was a significant difference between the net change of the small group's improvement and the net improvement of the large group a test of significance was made and revealed that there was no significant difference in the net improvement of the large class versus the small one. In short, it appears that there was no important difference in the level of learning of the large versus the small group, as far as the scores on analysis of these two essays was concerned.

Teacher B taught a small group of twenty-eight students who took both the pretest and the post-test. With these, twenty-eight members from Teacher B's large group were selected at random for matching purposes. A "t" test revealed there was no significant difference between the large and the small group on the first test. Similar findings of no significant difference between the two groups on the second test were also observed. While both groups showed significant improvement from the first to the second score, there was no difference in the net improvement of the two groups. These results attest also to the effectiveness of the teacher in both the large group of fifty-six and the small group of twenty-eight.

Teacher C's first exams of the large versus small group, when analyzed with a "t" test, revealed no significant difference. On the second test, however, the large group did significantly better at the 5 per cent level than did the small group. Although the difference between the net change in the two groups (the first versus the second test) is not significant, it should be pointed out that a subjective evaluation by members of the evaluating staff predicted the effectiveness of this particular teacher in the large group situation. As was the case of Teacher A and Teacher B, the scores on the second tests both in the large and small groups of Teacher C, were significantly higher than the scores on the first tests.

In summary, using this one measure of success, it appears that the variable, class size, is not important when there is a difference of twenty-eight students between the class size of twenty-eight and fifty-six.

Individual Problems

An examination of the student evaluation forms from the standpoint of the variable, class size, does not indicate any significant preference for small class over large class *per se* but does present individual problems that *seem* to stem from class size. For instance, in the case of Teacher A, there was more than a chance occurrence of the student complaint of buzzing in the back of the room, though this particular complaint did not occur in either of the other two classes. And similarly in Teacher B's case, there was more than a chance occurrence of a student preference for small versus the large class. It should be noted that Teacher B feels very strongly about the efficiency of small versus large classes.

In the case of Teacher C, there was more than a chance student preference for large group versus small group, with the recurrent comment that the large groups called out more and varied responses and, therefore, were stimulating. In the case of Teacher B, the argument in favor of small classes was that there was more chance for individual attention, and one did not feel shy as he might in large groups.

The overriding comment in each case (even though these evaluations were completed anonymously) was the outstanding learning that occurred on the part of almost all students, as they spoke in superlatives of the teaching ability of each of the three teachers.

Not the Critical Variable

These student responses prompt this writer to conclude as did Pfnister, in the 1958 conference on class size at the University of Michigan, that "class size is not the critical variable in teaching effectiveness in higher education; that it is rather the quality of the teaching, and of the learning." [1]

Though there has been a heavy clamor extolling the virtues of large instructional groups, the argument for large class sizes has not been uncontested.

In an experiment carried on by Fordham University, involving the subjects of economics, political science, and sociology, it was found that increased class size is not the definitive solution for increased enrollment.[2]

Anderson reports, in a well-controlled study he made in 1950, that the factor of the total daily student load assigned a teacher is important and those who had the lightest loads have the largest student accomplishment differential.[3]

O'Shaughnessy, in a much earlier study, showed a positive correlation between the size of classes and the percentage of students failing the courses, in favor of the small classes.[4]

Additional studies favoring the small class could be enumerated and many arguments favoring large class sizes could also be recorded. In fact, as Howard E. Bosley reports, it is likely that "when investigations of this nature are considered by numerical count, those favoring large classes would predominate." [5]

In the search for schedule and curriculum flexibility, the administration of Indian River Junior College would feel free to increase the size of the classes in English 101 without fear of detriment to the students or the acquisition of writing skills, providing such a move is given the enthusiastic stamp of approval from the staff concerned.

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[1] Hatch, Winslow. "Research in Class Size in Relationship to Effective Teaching." *Junior College Journal* 33: p. 21; September 1961.

[2] Cammarosano, Joseph R., and Santopola, Frank A. "Teaching Efficiency and Class Size," *School and Society* 86: pp. 338-41; September 27, 1958.

[3] Anderson, Kenneth E. "Relationship Between Teacher Load and Student Achievement." *School Science and Mathematics* 49: 468-70; June 1950.

[4] O'Shaughnessy, Louis. "The Size of College Classes and the Percentage of Failures." *School and Society* 57: 374; September 14, 1929.

[5] Bosley, Howard E. "Class Sizes and Faculty-Student Ratios in American Colleges." *Educational Record* 43: 148-153; April 1962.

NEW DIRECTIONS IN COMMUNITY SERVICES

"What's Past Is Prologue"[1]

By Ervin L. Harlacher

The community college is fast becoming a dynamic force which affects the thought processes, habits, economic status, and social interaction of people from every walk of life, in every part of the country. More and more, it is becoming the most important element of this nation's educational structure.

The community college in implementing its full community dimension is breaking, once and for all, the lock-step of tradition, i.e., college is four walls; college is semester-length courses; college is credit; college is culturally and educationally elite.

It seems inevitable that the community college will place even greater emphasis on its community dimension in the decade ahead. The community college will demonstrate, to an extent even greater than it has to date, that college is where the people are, and that community services are designed to take the college program out into the community as well as bring the community to the college.

In its most significant role, the program of community services constitutes what might be called "Operation Outreach." Peter S. Mousolite has suggested that, "We emulate the English minstrel, the French jongleur, the Spanish trovador, the Chautauqua enterprise so popular not so many years ago," and though the use of mobile units move out into the community and create the program there.[2]

The Next Great Thrust

While the full potential of the program of community services has not yet been realized by all institutions, there is reason to believe that the next great thrust of the community college development will be in the direction of community services. The American Association of Junior Colleges therefore authorized the present study.

In conducting this study the author during the summer and fall of 1967 visited thirty-seven community college districts in thirteen states, representing the small and the large the rich and the poor, and the urban and the rural community college. He also corresponded with administrators of twenty-eight additional college districts in twelve states, with trustees and presidents of newly organized community college districts, and with officials of state agencies concerned with the goverance of community colleges. The sixty-five community college districts participating in this study operate 104 college campuses in nineteen different states.

N.Y.C. Community College serves its community by offering specialized training to employes of N.Y.C. hospitals.

The community college is dedicated to the proposition that, important as are formalized curriculums offered for youth and adults within its classrooms, informal education provided on a continuous basis throughout the community for all of the rest of the people is of equal importance in building the character of the citizens who make up the state.

The program of the community college may be conceptualized in two dimensions—formal education and informal education. Through its formal dimension, sometimes characterized as schooling, the community college provides transfer, occupational, general education, and guidance and counseling programs for youth and adults enrolled in regularly scheduled day and evening classes on the campus.

But it is through its community dimension that the junior college truly becomes a community college. Chancellor Samuel B. Gould of the State University of New York, has underscored the importance of this dimension of informal education:

> It is my conviction that a college, in addition to its more readily accepted intellectual dimension, should have the dimension of community that offers a place for the general life enrichment of all who live nearby: young and old, artisan and farmer and member of profession, college graduate and comparatively unskilled. Thus many of the gaps or weaknesses that the new pressures of numbers are bound to create in formal education can be filled or strengthened as a college opens its doors and its resources to all in a friendly and informal fashion, without thought of credits or degrees or anything more than to assist the burgeoning of understanding in the individual as a member of a personal, physical, political, economic, artistic and spiritual world.[3]

The philosophy that the community college campus encompasses the length and breadth of the college district, and that the total population of the district is its student body, makes it possible for the community college, in a massive and untraditional way, to broaden the base for higher education. This philosophy also makes it possible to ease the problems of access to higher education by taking the college to the people. Furthermore, it offers freedom from the traditional image of the American college and university which sees college primarily, if not entirely, as an institution concerned with educating youth.

While the addition of community services has revolutionized the role of the community college, actually the community services concept is as old as Socrates—possibly older. Socrates first exemplified it by taking his wisdom into the streets and the market place and there created a student community representative of the people and actively concerned with the social and moral issues of the time.

By the eighteenth century, however, the idea of providing higher education for all the people had been abandoned, and the universities became storehouses for factual knowledge and retreats for the idle rich or select few.

The first step toward providing community services in this country was taken in 1826 by Josiah Holbrook when he established the American Lyceum. In later years, after the lyceum died out, chautauqua, initiated in 1874, carried forward the lyceum "spirit" and became a symbol of education and culture until its peak year in 1924.[4]

Morrill Act

Another step in the development of community services was the establishment of agricultural extension as a function of American universities under the Morrill and Smith-Lever Acts. The philosophy of agricultural extension focused on "helping people to help themselves."

The community services function as defined in this study, i.e., educational, cultural, and recreational services above and beyond regularly scheduled day and evening classes, is completely foreign to the traditional idea of college education but it is the manifestation of what the community college was created for. The community college recognizes that by definition it has an obligation to: (1) become a center of community life by encouraging the use of college facilities and services by community groups when such use does not interfere with the college's regularly scheduled day and evening programs; (2) provide educational services for all age groups which utilize the special skills and knowledge of the college staff and other experts and are designed to meet the needs of community groups and the college district at large; (3) provide the community with the leadership and coordination capabilities of the college, assist the community in long-range planning, and join with individuals and groups in attacking unsolved problems; and (4) contribute to and promote the cultural, intellectual, and social life of the college district community and the development of skills for the profitable use of leisure time.

A Community Service Agency

The original idea of the community college was one that involved a "grass roots" approach. In theory, at least, everyone connected with such an institution would look around, find educational gaps, and help fill the gaps. The community college faculty and staff—teachers and doers in the broadest possible sense—would undertake to solve human problems in the community around them or point out the needs to other educational groups in the community to care for.

Rooted in the soil of the district community it serves and drawing its students and strength from that community, the community college is particularly suited as a community service agency:

1. The community college is a community-centered institution with the primary purpose of providing service to the people of its community. Its offerings and programs are planned to meet the needs of the community and are developed with the active participation of citizens.

2. The community college claims community service as one of its major functions and, according to Thornton, ". . . the scope and adequacy of these services determine whether or not the college merits the title of community junior college. . . ."[5]

3. Since the community college is usually a creature of citizens of the local community or area, and since it is most frequently governed by a board of local citizens, the community college is readily capable of responding to changing community needs.

4. Most community colleges are operated by a local district which encompasses several separate and distinct communities. The ideal locale for a program of community services is one "in which there are numerous communities and subcommunities with natural and compelling interrelationship. . . ."[6] The program of community services welds these separate communities and groups together.

5. The community college is an institution of higher education, and as such can draw upon the advanced resources of its staff in assisting in the solution of the problems of an increasingly complex society.

6. The community college, as a relatively new segment of American education, is "unencrusted

with tradition, not hidebound by a rigid history, and in many cases, new and eager for adventure." Thus, it is able, without duplicating existing services in the community, to tailor its program to meet local needs and conditions.

At least seven directions which this major emphasis on the community dimension will take, seem safe to predict at this point:

I. *The community college will develop aggressive multiservice outreach programs designed to truly extend its campus throughout the entire college district.*

Through the use of extension centers, empty stores, portable units located on vacant land, mobile units, churches, schools, libraries, museums, art gallaries, places of business and other community facilities, the community college will establish communications links with all segments of the college district community, encouraging a free exchange of ideas and resources. The community college, stable yet unfettered by the permanence of buildings, will move in physical location in response to shifting needs.

Extension centers: Pasadena City College in California offers short courses, lectures, and forums in sixty-five different sites in every part of the six unified districts which compose the college district, which includes a unique course for wives of prisoners. And 600 students are enrolled in college credit courses offered by Miami-Dade Junior College, Florida, in a variety of community locations, including public agencies, hotels, airlines, the Miami Beach Center, and a local Air Force base.

In-plant training: Perhaps the most extensive in-plant training program in the country is operated by New York City Community College, resulting in pretraining or in-service training for 180 newly appointed building inspectors, 300 building inspectors, 320 dietary aides from eighteen hospitals, 1,000 nurses aides, and 700 municipal employees. Top management training courses conducted by El Centro College in Texas for a Dallas hospital, including basic management, work simplification, problem solving and goal setting, reportedly saved the hospital $750,000 operating costs during the first year. And the in-service training program developed for federal employees by Cuyahoga Community College in Cleveland, Ohio, is expected to attract some 500 initially, with the federal government paying tuition.

Mobile and portable units: Hudson Valley Community College in New York last summer utilized effectively an "Opportunity Van" in two disadvantaged Albany neighborhoods, recruiting students for its urban center. Another excellent example is the community science outreach program being developed by Oakland Community College in Michigan, in cooperation with a local institute of science, and featuring mobile exhibits and demonstrations, traveling museums and short courses.

II. *The community college will place increased emphasis on community education for all age levels and all age groups.*

Increasingly, community education services are not limited to youth just out of high school or to adults of the community, but are provided for citizens of all ages—including elementary and secondary school youngsters—with varying interests and points of view, and are provided at all social and economic levels. More and more these educational services embrace the whole gamut of community life with the objective of preparing citizens to cope with rapid and sweeping social, political, and technological change.

Short coures: The Center for Community Educational Services, established by the State University of New York Agricultural and Technical College at Farmingdale, offered 720 workshops, seminars, institutes and conferences last year, accommodating 32,000 persons. Since 1940 Abraham Baldwin Agricultural College in Georgia has offered 743 short courses for 98,699 farmers, stressing the latest techniques in farming and related fields.

In-service training: Suffolk County Community College in New York has developed, in cooperation with Civil Training Council, twenty-two country-financed in-service training courses for county employees, offered during the working day at seven different locations.

Baltimore Junior College in Maryland, under its new careers program, trained some 300 disadvantaged persons, twenty-two and up with job problems as psychology aides, home visitation aides, government service aides, data processing aides, etc. Some 1,100 disadvantaged adults and young adults are enrolled in the East Bay Skill Center, funded under MDTA and operated by Laney College in California. Big Bend Community College in Washington provides, on a contractual basis, training programs in licensed practical nursing, nurses aide, and mechanics, i.e., riveting, for a local Women's Job Corps Center. And Oakland Community College's project SERVE, funded under Title I of the Higher Education Act, stimulates active participation of senior citizens in community affairs through a three-part program: free counseling and placement service for those needing additional income; a volunteer placement bureau; and carefully tailored short courses.

Meeting community needs: "The Destroyers," a forum on the illegal drug traffic, sponsored by Cerritos College in California in cooperation with fourteen local school districts, resulted in a change in the curriculum for the fifth and sixth grades.

Senior citizens participate in Oakland's Project SERVE.

III. *The community college will utilize a greater diversification of media in meeting community needs and interests.*

No longer can it be said that the community college fulfills its community responsibility by merely offering a new course "anytime ten or more citizens want it, if teachers, space, funds, and equipment are available." Increasingly, the class is only one of a plethora of media utilized in the program of community service: telecommunications; seminars and symposiums; performing groups; self-instructional packages; educational and cultural tours; workshops and conferences; counseling and consultative services; research and planning, recreational activities; science experiments and exhibitions, facility usage; leadership, coordination, and advisory assistance; public lectures, and fine arts events.

Short courses: Even short courses offered under the program of community service take on a different format. Especially designed as in-service training for personnel of paleontology laboratories located in the area, the biostratigraphy seminar, sponsored by Bakersfield College in California, is now in its sixth year and continues to fill a need for the petroleum industry.

Telecommunications: Chicago City College's TV College, on the air approximately twenty-six hours per week, since 1956 has permitted 100,000 persons to take seventy different credit and noncredit courses in their homes, generating 170,000 enrollments. Using FM radio, Long Beach City College in California serves 100,000 kindergarten through twelfth grade students of the Long Beach Unified School District. In order to provide educational opportunities in five outlying areas of its 2,600 square mile district, Los Rios Junior College District in California is developing the concept of the Little Red Electronic Schoolhouse, equipping the one-room facilities with thirty carrels for audio-tutorial study.

Tours and field trips: During August of 1967, a week-long nature study field trip into the Minarets area of the Sierra Nevada was organized by Foothill College in California for thirty-six members of the community. And an imaginative program of field studies in Mexico and South America has been developed by the College of San Mateo in California including "pre-Columbian civilization" in Mexico City; and "Mayan civilization" centering on the Yucatan peninsula and Guatemala; and a people-to-people exploration of Central and South America.

Community performing groups: The Music Makers of the Foothill Junior College District in California encompass three community performing groups; a 140-voice community symphonic choir, the Schola Cantorum; a select chamber ensemble, the Master Symphonia; and a ninety-piece symphony, the Nova Vista Orchestra.

Consulting services: A program of technical assistance to industry, including bulletins, newsletters, and general consultative services, is being developed by New York City Community College in the areas of optics, data processing, and numerical control.

Community counseling: Cuyahoga Community College's project SEARCH for the culturally disadvantaged of the Hought section of Cleveland features a counseling center to help individuals identify realistic educational and vocational goals for themselves. North Florida Junior College provided the leadership for the development of an area guidance center, where twenty counslors serve elementary schools, high schools, and junior colleges in six rural counties by providing 115 hours of guidance time daily.

IV. *The community college will increasingly utilize its catalytic capabilities to assist its community in the solution of basic educational, economic, political, and social problems.*

In the process of becoming an educational resource center, the community college is dynamically relating its programs to the existing and emerging needs of its district community. Through action programs aimed at closing ravines now dividing the inner city from the outer community; baseline data from community studies; the leadership and advisory assistance of college personnel in the mobilization of community resources; long-range planning; workshops, institutes and conferences; and the organization of community coordinating councils and other needed groups, the community college is becoming an agency for social change.

Programs for the disadvantaged: During the past year, 192 disadvantaged students have participated in the Neighborhood Youth Corps program at Westark Junior College in Arkansas, spending approximately half of their time in remedial reading, writing and arithmetic, and the other half in automobile mechanics, automobile body and welding programs. Baltimore Junior College has developed two programs to motivate youngsters from culturally disadvantaged sections of Baltimore to stay in school and seek college goals: (1) an Upward Bound program for promising tenth and eleventh grade students; and (2) Operation: College Horizons for junior and senior high school students and their parents. The Peralta Colleges in California are developing an extensive program for the culturally disadvantaged who remain in the inner city, which features a student service corps, community development centers offering educational and counseling services, a cultural enrichment program, and a scholarship assistance program.

Community leadership: In order to give maximum service to its community, Abraham Baldwin College initiated project SURGE (Systematic Utilization of Resources for Growth and Efficiency) for Tifton and Tiff County in 1964, utilizing fourteen committees, representing every aspect of community life and an annual "town hall" type meeting.

Workshops, institutes, and conferences: An extensive program of community workshops and seminars to provide information and education about local government, planning renewal, community organization, etc., has been developed by Essex Community College in Maryland.

Organization of community groups: New York City Community College has proposed the establishment of an economic training institute to be designed by a task force in response to problems identified by the South Brooklyn Community Progress Center's clientele as well as its professional staff.

V. *The community college will be increasingly concerned about the cultural growth of its community and state.*

That this trend is already taking shape has been evident in many communities for some time. A survey of development in California four years ago, for example resulted in this conclusion: "California communities from the Sierra to the sea, and the Siskyous to the Mexican border are experiencing a cultural, social, and intellectual renaissance. And much of the credit for the community rebirth is due California's seventy-one public junior colleges and their programs of community services."[7]

Cultural centers: Flint Junior College in Michigan has developed a cultural center which includes an intimate theater, auditorium, an art center, planetarium, museum, and a public library. Del Mar College in Texas has become a cultural center for the entire college district through its extensive cultural program which includes community performing groups—a chamber orchestra, a chorale, choral ensemble, and a full symphony orchestra; and festivals and series presentations. Rockland Community College in New York has taken a number of steps to join forces with community groups in creating a cultural center for the comunity which would feature an on-campus museum, a theater and/or auditorium, and a planetarium. A most ambitious and extensive composite of performing arts activities was initiated in the spring of 1967 by Bucks County Community College, Pennsylvania, when it undertook a multifaceted program of experimental theater, children's theater, elementary and secondary school visitations, an art festival, and a college-sponsored professional repretory company.

Arts councils: Delta College in Michigan was instrumental in the formation of a forty-member arts council which is housed on the college campus and publishes an annual calendar, functions as a "clearinghouse" for the scheduling of events, operates a central arts information office, and promoted the area arts activity over the college-owned educational television station.

VI. *The community college will place greater emphasis on interaction with its community.*

Increasingly, it is being recognized that the effective program of community services is built upon (1) a solid foundation of citizen participation and college-community interactions and (2) a thorough understanding of the community. Citizens actually participate in the planning, maintenance, and evaluation of the program; and the college, recognizing that it must be of the community and not just in it, participates in community life. In such a way, mutual interaction is achieved.

Institutional synergism: This term has been defined as simultaneous action of separate agencies, which together have a greater total effect than the sum of their individual efforts. Illustrative of this term is the concept of the "Health and Education Campus" being developed by Essex Community College in Maryland, the Franklin Square Hospital, and the Baltimore County Health Department, and featuring the sharing of physical facilities and human resources, the joint development of paramedical curriculum, and development of continuing education programs for patients and the community through television. Rockland Community College is developing a college library as a strong community-serving central reference and research library to complement existing library services in the county, and a media center capable of sending programs to all schools in the county. Approximately one hundred paintings of Chautauqua County Society artists are constantly on display in hallways and offices throughout the campus of Jamestown Community College in New York, making the entire campus an art gallery. And thirty-three companies cooperate with Rock Valley College in Illinois in the promotion of and recruitment for its unique Career Advancement Program which is permitting 174 company-employed students to work half-time and spend half-time in class.

Advisory committees: Cerritos College in California is aided in the planning and implementation of its program of community services by a citizens' advisory council and nine advisory committees, including adult education, business, civic responsibilities, community research and development, community voluteeer services, fine arts, professions, recreation and youth.

Community councils: Vincennes University Junior College in Indiana has organized a council of top managers of industry in the area which plans educational programs for the welfare of industry.

Community-college sponsorship: Joining forces with a community organization, North Florida Junior College has created the North Florida Junior College-Madison Artist Series Association for the purpose of planning and financing high-level artist series programs for the college and the community.

VII. *The community college will increasingly recognize the need for cooperation with other community and regional agencies.*

In order to avoid unnecessary duplication of services, a greater effort is being made by community college personnel to coordinate the community college program of community services with programs of other community and regional agencies, i.e., public schools, recreation districts, governmental agencies, museums, art galleries, libraries, and four-year colleges and universities.

Community college cooperation: The San Mateo and Foothill Junior College Districts in California have entered into a special training program, cosponsored by the Junior League of Palo Alto, for the purpose of training unpaid volunteers for the public schools. And seventeen junior colleges of Los Angeles County, California, are cooperating in the offering of a two-unit health education course over a local commercial television channel.

Cooperation with four-year colleges: The College of the Redwoods and Humboldt State College in California are cooperating in the extension of concerts and lecture series programs to local communities in northern California. The Community College of Philadelphia and thirty-six other two and four-year colleges are participating in a consortium, the College Bound Corporation, to provide admission counseling for community high schools. Big Bend Community College is coordinating with four other colleges and a public school district in a nine-county area in the state of Washington, a unique program designed to upgrade Japanese migrants to a fifth grade reading level and offering prevocational and vocational programs.

Cooperation with public schools: Oakland Community College during the past year offered some eighty credit and noncredit courses in twenty-nine different centers in the college district, in cooperation with local public schools.

Regional cooperation: Approximately eighty colleges in California, including a few four-year colleges as well as community colleges, have organized the College Association for Public Events and Services for the purpose of block-booking lectures, artists, and exchanging package programs and experiences. CAPES organizations have also been organized in Arizona and Michigan.

Conclusion

Through imaginative programs of community services, community colleges are beginning to assume their natural role as a catalytic force—proving the leadership, coordination, and cooperation necessary to stimulate action programs by appropriate individuals and groups with the community. The reciprocal relationship between the community and the community college is such that the community college both reflects and effects changes in the structure of its community, and the life patterns of its residents.

More and more, the community college is inserting into the life stream of its people forces that can change, revise, unify, and stimulate the individual, the organization, and ultimately, the tone of mind of the entire community.

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[1] Condensed from chapter IV, "What's Past is Prologue." Harlacher, Ervin L. *The Community Dimension of the Community College, Report to the Amrican Association of Junior Colleges,* November, 1967.

[2] Mousolite, Peter S. *The Edge of the Chair,* remarks presented to National Conference on Vocational and Technical Education. Chicago: May 16, 1967.

[3] Gould, Samuel B. "Whose Goals for Higher Education," remarks prepared for delivery before 50th Annual Meeting, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., October 12, 1967.

[4] Jones, Bertis L. *The History of Community Development in American Universities With Particular Reference to Four Selected Institutions.* Unpublished Ed. D. dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles, 1961, p. 329-332.

[5] Thornton, James W., *The Community Junior College.* New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1960, p. 66.

[6] Seay, Maurice F. and Crawford, Ferris N. *The Community School and Community Self-Improvement.* Lansing Michigan: Clair L. Taylor, Superintendent to Public Instruction, 1954, p. 144.

[7] Harlacher, Ervin L. "California's Community Renaissance," *Junior College Journal,* XXXIV (May, 1966).

OUR COMMUNITY IS OUR CLASSROOM

By Ruth Macfarlane

Eugene Patton (left), Pasadena City College sociology student, loads a special bus to take children from Roosevelt School for Handicapped Children on a weekly trip.

Five thousand, two hundred hours of volunteer work donated by one hundred and fifteen sociology students to twenty-three community agencies!

A banner headline, indeed, for just one semester's activities in lieu of the outside reading required of social science students at Pasadena City College.

During second semester 1962-1963, students from five sociology classes taught by two instructors participated in the volunteer placement program. The 115 students who substituted volunteer work for regularly required outside reading represented over 50 per cent of the students enrolled in the five sections. The twenty-three participating community agencies, plus other agencies which requested volunteers but got no takers, could have absorbed twice the number of student volunteers assigned.

This volunteer program is of some years' standing. Its development has been possible primarily because of the active interest and cooperation of the Volunteer Placement Bureau of Pasadena. The bureau serves the college as a clearinghouse for the agencies wishing the services of student volunteers. The great majority of the participating agencies are located in Pasadena proper or in the immediate vicinity. However, outlying agencies may also request student volunteers, provided they route their requests through the Pasadena Volunteer Bureau.

Each student works a minimum of thirty hours during the semester; fewer hours than this by any one individual student contribute little to the agency, and even less to the student of sociology.

The average number of hours worked by each student more nearly approximates forty-five or fifty.

Students are advised not to overdo it. This is a temptation once the student becomes involved in his assignment. We at the college strongly urge that forty-five hours be the maximum.

"Put the extra hours in on reading the textbook," we plead.

But many individual students still clock sixty, seventy, and more hours during the semester.

Many volunteers continue their assignments another semester or two on their own, or during the summer months. Other students are taken on by the agencies as paid assistants.

Most of the opportunities provided by the twenty-three participating agencies involve meaningful group experiences for the students assigned. This factor is stressed heavily in college communications to the agencies. It is our hope that the volunteer assignment will correlate with the student's academic work in sociology.

A breakdown of assignment by type of agency for this past semester shows the extent to which this has been achieved.

Does Community Volunteer Work Provide a Hidden Gimmick in the "Cooling Out" Process?

Fifty-five per cent of the students were assigned to specialized agencies for children and youth—homes for emotionally disturbed children, schools for the physically handicapped or mentally retarded, child care centers for children of working mothers. In these assignments, students work both with groups of children and with individual children, many of these in their group relationships, however.

Thirty-four per cent of the students were assigned to character building agencies—Boys Club, Girls Club, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A. In such assignments volunteers work with groups of children or youth. Several of these agencies are cooperating in Pasadena's special West Side Project, and volunteers have the opportunity to work with culturally deprived or alienated children.

The remaining eleven per cent of the students were assigned last semester to general community agencies such as the art museum and hospitals. Most of these activities, however, involved some group interaction.

In their attempts to relate their assignments to classroom activities, many students undertake sociograms of their groups, with the usual surprising results that sociograms are apt to reveal. These sociograms, and the techniques used, are discussed before the class, and frequently are of assistance to agency personnel.

At the end of the semester students are expected to evaluate their assignments, in writing, both in regard to their correlation to academic sociology and from the point of view of adequacy of agency supervision.

Also, students are given the opportunity to report orally to the class on their assignments. These written and oral evaluations are of great assistance to the instructors and to the Volunteer Bureau in making up the list of approved agencies for the ensuing semester, and in making suggestions to the agencies on how to improve assignments.

All of the assignments discussed above involved only those students enrolled in Sociology 1 (concepts and principles). This year the college is experimenting with the assignment of students in Sociology 2 (social problems) to specialized "problem-type" agencies—homes for emotionally disturbed children, mental hospitals, special homes for deviant adults (alcoholics, narcotic addicts, parolees).

Are the jobs the students work on worthwhile, or are they "make-work" with little real significance, either for the agency or for the student? Agency evaluations reveal that the agencies, without fail, need the assistance of the student volunteers—twice over, in fact. Student evaluations aren't quite as emphatic about the needs of the agencies. Some are downright critical of the utilization of volunteer labor. (The Volunteer Bureau and the college will have to work on these situations.) In all fairness to the agencies, however, it should be pointed out that many of the student critics are at fault rather than the agencies. For not all students are able to realize the full potential of their opportunities. Some do not know how to relate to other people—a necessity in this "other-directed" world of ours.[1]

For example, take the case of an agency that went overboard in accepting volunteers, evidently assigning all the students who applied. There were almost as many student volunteers, twenty-one, as there were children cared for by the agency, which is a home for displaced children. Many of the children are wards of the court; others are placed in the home by their own parents. Most of them, ranging in age from nine to sixteen, evidence some degree of emotional disturbance. The majority of the twenty-one volunteers adapted to the demands of their assignments, accepting the limitations imposed by overburdened and not too well-trained supervisors and by the surplus of volunteers. They profited by their hours, and were not too critical of the agency. Here is how one of these volunteers sees his experience:

> *Mr. ———— was a fine supervisor with full control of every situation. He gave me a great insight into working with teenage boys. The ———— is a wonderful home and everyone seemed cheerful and happy. . . . Thanks to the Social Science Department for a wonderful experience.*

Another volunteer, working under the same conditions, is overwhelmed, and most critical. He writes:

> *Description of assignment: That's a really fine question. Recreation in general. Analysis of supervision: very poor—none. Evaluation of experience: Poor (fun). Suggestions for improvement: Forget it.*

As another example, take an agency where student volunteers frequently find themselves working with an individual child (physically handicapped), or with a small group of such children. Here is one student who finds it a simple matter to relate quickly to such children as attested to by her supervisor.

> *R ———— would be an asset to any program. Her quiet manner and charm won all the children. She was particularly helpful and sensitive with the more physically involved children. Her interest and willingness to learn were most commendable. It was a pleasure to have her here.*

This student writes that her experience was most interesting and extremely valuable, "the most valuable part of the whole course." On the other hand, an older, more mature male student finds it extremely difficult to relate to these same children. He writes:

> *I learned quite a bit about the disease of cerebral palsy . . . I found out that the cost of nursing these individuals is staggering. I learned many other small bits of information about the disease and the care, but I didn't learn a thing from the home. They don't need volunteers, they need more nurses' aides with muscle! After putting in about thirty-five boring hours being a nursemaid. . . .*

To summarize, then, the assignment is sociologically significant only to the extent that (1) the agency provides adequate and imaginative supervision; and (2) the student brings initiative and adaptability to his assignment.

Some Implications

Over the years masses of data have been accumulating on this program, agency as well as student evaluations. During the five years I have been identified with the program, there has been an average of 120 students assigned each semester to as many as thirty agencies at a time: 200 plus volunteers per year, over 1,000 volunteers in five years! The figures begin to overwhelm me. Certainly no in-depth analysis of such mountains of data is possible within the confines of one short article. Just as certainly, however, there are many implications that deserve serious in-depth treatment. I can only hint at three of them.

For one thing, what is the meaning of such a community development for a National Service Corps? Would not Pasadena be a logical spot for a pilot project? Here we have a well-developed sense of community service, together with a community college already geared to volunteer activities. There is need for additional volunteers. At the same time, however, in any community that has developed volunteer work to such a high point of perfection as has Pasadena, is the National Service Corps more of a threat than a promise? Would it have the net effect of drying up volunteer initiative? Many community leaders think so. I am not one of them.

And another thing, what is the meaning of such a program for the adolescent in his constant search for identity? We are told by students of adolescence that this age group, the older adolescent, or perhaps better stated, this particular educational segment, the lower division student, is now the key adolescent group to be studied. Nevitt Sanford points out that the lower division students are a distinctive age group, and need concentrated study.[2] Statistically, this educational bracket is coming to be to American society what the senior high school was two decades ago—a psycho-social moratorium in which the individual has a culturally justified pretext to spend two to four years growing up before committing himself to a career and a style of life.[3] David Riesman has dubbed college as the initiation rite of the middle class.[4]

Richard Anthony (left) and Bodil Nielsen (right) at work as volunteers in a child care center, Jefferson School.

Can such a volunteer program be an effective technique in helping a student define his identity? Let's see what the students say:

> *I feel that nearly all of my values have been changed due to the work I have been doing with my group of boys. I have developed a good deal more self-reliance, because I am now in charge of the group with almost no outside help. . . . In helping the boys with their problems I am forced to stop and realize how I feel about the situation myself, and I feel that this has helped me to organize and recognize my own feelings. . . . I am now considering taking a sociology major, with emphasis on Y.M.C.A. work. . . .*

* * * *

> *Through my volunteer work I have become a more mature thinking person. I've also found that some things which did not seem so important to me before have suddenly become very important in my life. I've come to realize that courses such as these have more to them than just being labeled "garbage." Too bad I found out so late in the semester.*

* * * *

> *I think college students tend to create a shell of self-centeredness in their purpose to get an education. In this tendency they conform readily and very seldom consider those who have little in common or little to do with their main purpose—going to school. Volunteer work provides an outlet, an opportunity to discover the outside world of little children, the handicapped, even*

of adults. In this way, the student may be partially hatched from his shell and more ready to face the problems and the reality of the world outside of the college campus. For this opportunity I am grateful.

American youth, we are told, lack commitment; yet the Peace Corps, and this experiment in volunteer work, show that youth want to feel committed. Perhaps our culture is failing youth, not vice versa.

The "Cooling Out" Function

And now, one final implication: Does such a volunteer, community program have something to offer community colleges in their effort to fulfill what has been called their "cooling out" function? This function is simply: "The junior college must take students who think of themselves as transfer students and transform many of them into terminal students in ways that will be psychologically acceptable to them."[5] For in these days of mass education there seems to be too much mass and too little education, and the process of cutting youngsters down to academic size by academically oriented instructors just shouldn't happen, either to the youngsters or to our society. It's bad for the youngster; it's bad for society. Our technological world needs the older adolescent, but can effectively use him only if he is a whole person, with a sense of human dignity and self-respect, not overwhelmed by his sense of academic failure. Even the developing areas of Africa, as I found out last summer during a comparative education tour, are finding the cost of such academic attrition too high.

For many of these sociology students the only sense of achievement they experience in college results from their volunteer assignments. Semester after semester they sit there, not only in my classes, but in others, accumulating D's, too many F's, occasionally a low C, unable to verbalize in Bluebooks, constitutionally unable to make the right choice on I.B.M. answer sheets. But time after time these same students come through with an A in volunteer work, where they relate to people, not to abstract ideas.

Who is to judge the true potentialities of these students?

Consider Bill and Jim as cases in point. Bill was a straight D student in my class, and he was recommended for dismissal by another instructor because of cheating. Bill accepted the challenge tossed out to male students at the beginning of the semester: to take on a child care center assignment to provide a bit of male companionship in the female dominated lives of the children in the centers. Bill was assigned to a nursery school. He loved it. The children loved him. Bill writes:

I enjoyed working with the children. I feel that I have gained much in teaching small children. . . . I have no improvements to suggest. I thoroughly enjoyed the experience.

His supervisor writes:

Bill helped to supervise children in all nursery activities. He helped them to feel secure, cared for, worthy and competent. . . . He helped children to become good workers, constructive, respectful of tools, interested and pleased with creative effort. . . . He has been outstanding in his interest, enthusiasm and initiative in participation. He has filled many needs here, demonstrating gentleness, patience, kindness and skill in working with young children. The children love and admire him and will certainly miss him greatly, as will all the staff.

Then there's Jim—a total loss in the classroom. He couldn't get to class half the time, and he consistently goofed on examinations, but as assistant leader of a Scout troop composed of mentally retraded boys, Jim was tops. His supervisor writes:

Jim would certainly do well to investigate the field of child psychology, special education, and the like. His understanding of the many problems, and his ability to deal with them and to prepare a well-rounded program . . . show insight and good judgment. He will be going on a week end with the troop to see how his entire hypothesis and conclusion come out. I suggested to him that a record of his work be kept in the event he would do a detailed study at some future time. This experience would be very applicable to a B.A. or M.A. degree.

To repeat, who is to judge the real potentialities of these students? In this inexorable process of achieving academic identity, should not the colleges be obligated to provide a successful experience in some area? Does volunteer work provide a possible hidden gimmick in this cooling out process in which the need for respect and status is not ignored?

But by now I am talking about a thousand other problems—as many thousands as there are students crowding into our community colleges. We've barely begun to recognize their needs, let alone to do something constructive about them. Surely it is possible to meet these needs by some process other than flunking students out of college, especially out of a community college.

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[1] *The Lonely Crowd* by David Riesman is required reading for all students in Sociology 1.

[2] Sanford, Nevitt, editor. *The American College.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1962. Chapter 6, "Developmental Status of the Entering Freshman," pp. 253-282.

[3] Riesman, David, and Jencks, Christopher. *The American College," op. cit.* Chapter 3, "The Viability of the American College," p. 75.

[4] *Ibid.* p. 75.

[5] Selznick, Philip. "A Sociologist Views Junior College Administration." (Symposium on Need for Administrative Leadership in Junior Colleges.) *Journal of Secondary Education*; January, 1961.

YOUR COMMUNITY CAN HELP

By Joe B. Rushing

It is five o'clock in the afternoon in Fort Lauderdale. Traffic moves one way at the temporary quarters of the Junior College of Broward County. Students and faculty are vacating the campus after a day that began ten hours ago. The near-empty parking lots give evidence that only a few of the students are still working on laboratory and class assignments. It will be an hour before the traffic reverses and hundreds converge on the campus for evening classes. In one sense, "The day is done."

At the administration building, however, one of the most important events of the day is taking place. Two lawyers, a contractor, a real estate developer, and the wife of a dentist are engaged in serious deliberation with the president of the college. They may be discussing finances, curriculum, fee schedule, or personnel. Whatever the items included on the agenda, here are five lay citizens making a contribution to the institution and its program. For this is a regular meeting of the Advisory Committee of the Junior College of Broward County.

A significant innovation in American education since World War II has been the widespread use of lay advisory committees. Although this practice has existed in some form for many years, the most extensive development has been in the past two decades. Where advisory committees have been properly selected and used, educators have found a valu-

When Citizens Share in Advisory Capacities An Institution Becomes a True Community College

able source of aid in solving a multiplicity of educational problems.

One characteristic of American education is that control of educational institutions has traditionally been given to lay boards with executive authority being placed in the hands of the professional educator. This is a desirable feature and one that should be maintained. More and more, however, the educator utilizes human resources within his community through citizens advisory committees.

The use of advisory committees takes many forms throughout the country, and the practice continues to grow. In Florida the use of such committees has been written into law as it relates to the public junior colleges established under the foundation program of the state. Here, with the public junior college being the responsibility of the county board of public instruction, it is required that a local advisory committee be selected to advise with the president on policies and procedures necessary for a strong program of post-high school education. In addition to its general advisory committee, the Florida public junior college, as well as all other two-year institutions, should consider the use of other citizens committees for specialized assistance.

Benefits Are Numerous

An advisory committee can be a great success or a disastrous failure. Success depends on understanding the role of the advisory committee, being aware of the help which it can give, and knowing the methods by which the committee is formed and used.

A citizens advisory committee can help the junior college and its administrative head in many ways. First, it can represent the community to the college. Advisory committee members selected from among community leaders have an awareness of the educational needs of the community. Through their professional and personal contacts these citizens are able to bring to the attention of the college staff educational needs as they see them. The institution, in turn, may translate these into curriculum and educational activities. The junior college is keenly aware of its need for a strong public image. An advisory committee is in a unique position to interpret the image which the public holds. Because of their positions in the community, advisory committee members are able to bring specific problems to the president which require his attention.

The second contribution of an advisory committee is to represent the college to its constituency. When laymen go to individuals or community groups and talk convincingly of the junior college program, they often have a more positive effect than if college staff members do the same thing. Advisory committees have many such opportunities. When a committee is made up of people of prominence and integrity, then it can give a stability to the college which is extremely important. This is especially true of the new institution which has not had time to establish its reputation, either academically or administratively. Nothing is more helpful to the junior college than to have respected and competent local citizens speaking in its behalf.

A third contribution which a strong advisory committee can make is to add to the voice of the chief administrative officer as he attempts to develop the program of the institution. Such committees are most valuable during the early growth of a two-year college or in establishing specialized curriculums.

Lay citizens, serving as a "sounding board" for the president, can consider his ideas and recommendations to his advantage. They may, first of all, help him to organize and present his own program in a more effective manner. When prominent citizens are convinced of the soundness of recommended policies or programs, the president has added support when he carries such matters to the governing board of the institution. The use of advisory committees in this capacity is of great importance in a system such as that followed in Florida. Boards of Public Instruction of the sixty-seven counties of the state find themselves occupied with the problems of the school system including grades k-12. To consider policy matters prior to their presentation to the board was one of the chief reasons for the establishment of local advisory committees. A Board of Public Instruction tends to place confidence in a committee of reputable citizens which it has appointed to study matters of policy relating to the junior college.

What makes an advisory committee function? Those who have had experience in working with citizens advisory committees know that they may prove highly successful or turn into great disappointments. Communities which have lost bond elections by overwhelming votes have come back with the same proposals made by citizens advisory committees and passed them by large majorities. However, there are some advisory committees which never function and which never get results. Any junior college planning to make use of advisory committees would do well to consider certain basic principles in this important undertaking.

An advisory committee should be appointed by appropriate authority. Whatever this authority might be, it is important that the committee be given this official recognition. Proper appointment gives status to the committee which it will not have if it is assembled in an informal manner by any member of the staff who might choose to consult with lay citizens. Adequate recognition should be given to such appointments in order that the members of the citizens committee may fully realize that the college looks upon this as a worthwhile endeavor.

An advisory committee must clearly understand its role. At the first meeting of any committee, this point should be stressed and no member should leave with an erroneous impression of his responsibility. The committee has to know that it serves only in an advisory capacity. It has no legal authority to take action. It must realize that the junior college is not bound to accept its advice or its recommendations. This does not discourage people from serving on such committees if they understand their function. In fact, many highly competent citizens who would not serve on boards of control are happy to serve in an advisory capacity.

An advisory committee must be used effectively. A committee which is appointed and never meets is dead. Hold regular meetings or have an understanding that meetings will be called whenever necessary. Unless there are important matters for it to study, the committee should not be formed. Place on the agenda only those things appropriate for consideration by an advisory committee. Use the committee effectively by considering its purpose and the competence of the people who serve on it. For example, a general advisory committee such as that required by law in Florida junior colleges would not normally be called upon to advise on the specific curriculum content of electronics technology. Special committees should be organized for such purposes. The committee must be kept fully advised on that phase of the program it has been appointed to consider. If it is a standing committee, the chief executive officer or other responsible staff member should report regularly to the committee on the general development of the institution or the specific area in which it is to serve. Once a committee has made its recommendations, it is entitled to a report on the final action.

An advisory committee should be representative. Representation will depend upon the size of the committee and purpose for which it is formed. Geographical representation may be the chief factor in selecting members. The five members of the advisory committee of the Junior College of Broward County come from five different municipalities along the Florida Gold Coast. The professions, business, and industry are represented by the members. General advisory committees selected in technical education should consist of a good cross section of local industry. One selected in business education should get representatives from many types of businesses in the area which it serves.

Terms of appointment of advisory committee members must be defined. If the committee is a permanent one, a system of alternating terms should be established. Members ought to be appointed for specific terms which overlap. This assures continuity in the work of the committee and permits broader representation from the community over a period of years. If the committee is a temporary one to study a specific problem, its members should understand this from the beginning. The appointments can be for a specific period of time or until a final report is submitted. Once the committee has served its purpose and its report has been accepted, the members should receive appropriate recognition for their services and the committee dissolved. When this principle is violated and a "temporary" committee becomes permanent, it may create responsibilities it was never meant to have. When this happens, the institution and its administrative head will have problems which grow as years pass.

* * *

Yes, citizens can help us in more ways than by paying taxes. In any community there are many individuals who have the competence to make a significant contribution to the junior college in advisory capacity. Such help is not likely to be forthcoming of its own initiative. It's up to the chief executive officer of the junior college to identify the areas in which citizens can be of assistance and to select systematically and wisely such committees as may be appropriate and to use them to the best possible advantage. When such practice is followed, the benefits are great and the institution assumes the true characteristics of a community college.

"THERE'S A MEETING HERE TONIGHT"

Audrey G. Menefee

Community service is a major function of the public junior college. The institution's close relationship to the area it serves is so universally recognized that the very word "junior" is being replaced by the word "community" in many places.

One sensitive area of college-community relations has been neglected, however, at least in the literature and perhaps also in practice. This is community use of the physical plant itself.

Junior college classroom use probably exceeds the college average as reported by Philip Coombs of the Ford Foundation, who found that available classrooms are used at only 46 per cent of capacity, and laboratories at only 38 per cent of capacity, because the public college has had to practise economy in its use of time and space. Still, junior college auditoriums, gymnasiums, cafeterias and conference rooms often echo only to the sound of the custodian's broom during evening hours and weekends. Playing fields and tennis courts are silent and unused in the late hours.

A potentially vast community service is usually built into the nation's colleges -- especially its junior colleges which, as a rule, are found in centers of expanding population. While these areas are the places where junior colleges are most needed, they are also the places where taxpayers are hard put to pay for essential services such as schools, fire and police protection, garbage disposal, sewers, roads. Few parks or civic centers are to be seen in America's sprawling new suburbs; the customary "town meeting" places are church fellowship halls and elementary school multipurpose rooms. Perhaps more frequently than one might suppose, civic groups simply disintegrate for want of a convenient and inexpensive gathering place. A little of the democratic way of life is lost with them.

Many junior colleges are responding to the need by inviting limited community use of their facilities, but a number of factors combine to give this public service function relatively low priority. There is uncertainty over the public's legal status on school property, for example; there is also the daily press of routine college responsibilities, and there are the inevitable inconveniences attendant upon throwing open the doors to the public.

While these are not insurmountable obstacles, it should be noted that not many taxpayers realize they may have some legitimate claim on the use of their public college facilities, so they do not press the claim. Neither do academicians loudly call it to their attention. It is not in the tradition of American colleges - public or private - to encourage large-scale public access. By long established custom the ivory tower is not entered by nonacademic persons except upon formal invitation to special events. This custom is breaking down, and the pace is being set by the public junior colleges.

Soon after American River Junior College was established in 1955, its trustees faced the issue of whether to encourage, passively permit, or actively resist public use of the college facilities. It was decided to invite public use, and by taking the initiative, the college was able to define the rules for such use so that it would interfere with basic instructional functions. The educational program was to have priority at all times, the Board agreed, and no permit would be granted for a use which might interfere in any way with college instruction or student activities. Beyond this, the policy would be flexible and generous. By providing a simple but workable procedure to meet many of the needs of civic groups, the college has reaped important rewards, including steadily increasing community good will and public interest in its affairs.

American River Junior College was built in the geographic center of a 220 square mile district whose population has tripled in the past ten years and is expected to increase another [illegible] times by 1980. Like its counterparts elsewhere, this unincorporated area is deficient in neighborhood, community, and district centers. Rapid urbanization after World War II caused its open spaces to disappear and placed increasing strain on existing centers. The community's myriad subgroups clearly needed a central place where both large and small meetings could be held; they needed a place where children's performances could be offered; they needed a place where people of all ages could gather for leisure time and cultural activities.

When ARJC moved to its permanent campus in 1958, a staff member with public relations experience was given the part-time assignment of handling requests of community groups to visit the campus. At first the requests were scattered and rather timid in nature, but as word spread within the area more and more calls came in until their processing came to involve the cooperative skills of students, faculty, administration, and classified personnel.

It is not only the building and classrooms that are in demand; the 153-acre campus itself holds a great appeal to special groups. Since the area's wheat fields and walnut orchards have given way to tract homes and highways, there are few places left where people can see natural land close to home. The college has carefully preserved its own "wild" area along a creek bordering the campus, and frequent visits are made there by youth groups. They are sometimes guided through the creek area by ARJC life-science instructors. A Brownie day camp is in possession of a far corner of the campus for two weeks in the summertime, and the campus is a regular post for birdwatchers participating in the annual U.S. bird count.

In the 1959-70 school year, campus facilities were used approximately 400 times by community groups. In the next year, this number had been exceeded long before the end of the second term. Meetings ranged in size from ten to a thousand participants, and in releasing space the college placed few if any facilities off-limits to community organizations.

Accelerated pace of community use is shown by the figures for 1960-61, when over 30,000 persons not directly associated with the college were accommodated on the campus. Between September and February some 14,000 off-campus people occupied the facilities; by February 1, advance reservations had already been made for accommodating another 14,600 persons before the end of the school year in June. Applications had also been made as early as January for summertime use of facilities and for affairs scheduled for the autumn months.

When it is considered that day college classes run into the late afternnon hours and that evening school classes occupy most buildings four nights a week, it may seem surprising that almost every campus structure has been used at one time or another by one or more of the scores of community groups seeking a meeting place. The requests of these groups can usually be met despite the fact that no facilities are released to the public if the time or purpose of their use would conflict with college activities. And it is significant that the cost of this large-scale community service is negligible.

Three facilities are in heaviest demand by ARJC's "public" -- the auditorium or Little Theater, the Student Center, and the gymnasium. These three areas were, in fact, designed by the architects to contain unique properties for meeting requirements of community organizations as well as those of students.

The student center is a popular place for ceremonial installations, awards banquets, and balls. Its main cafeteria seats 500 persons, and another 30 to 70 can be accommodated in each of four adjoining banquet rooms....

The Little Theater, a visually pleasing and acoustically excellent structure, seats 480 in theater seats. Its stage has a revolving turntable for quick scene changes and its pit can contain a small orchestra. The 70-piece Sacramento Junior Symphony orchestra rehearses on the theater stage each Saturday morning in preparation for its spring and winter concerts which are presented on the campus before large audiences. Here, also, amateur theatrical groups, organ clubs, and dance classes offer recitals and performances. Garden clubs show flower-arrangement demonstrations. Public meetings are held in the theater to air controversial issues of community concern....

When programs are scheduled in the theater or student center, the college provides the services of student assistants who have been trained to handle lighting and sound equipment. The small additional cost of this program is offset by the protection it affords college equipment and the training it provides the students.

The gymnasium is perhaps the most thoroughly exploited structure on the campus. During the basketball and volleyball season, the ARJC gymnasium is in use six days and five nights of the week and occasionally on Sunday. Practice play by small industry and church-related teams is held here as well as district-wide tournament play involving hundreds of participants. Private tennis clubs in the area are permitted to sponsor regional tennis tournaments on the college courts.

Among the 30,000 off-campus persons who were made to feel welcome in the facilities of their community college during the year, many were experiencing their first visit to a college.

The open door policy works. It helps ARJC to accomplish three important objectives: It provides part of the solution for an urgent community need; it guarantees that available facilities are used to a fuller per cent of capacity; and it serves to acquaint area residents with their community college in the best way possible - through first-hand experience and interaction with the college.

AUDREY G. MENEFEE was a counselor and instructor in psychology at American River College, Sacramento, California, and is presently dean of students at Mt. Vernon Jr.College,Wash.,D.C.

College publications and public relations staff at a weekly meeting are from left: Olaf Anderson, field representative; Roberta Mantooth, coordinator of mass media; Earl Montgomery, mailing and distribution; George Corcoran, coordinator of publications; Cleo Heiken, secretary; Mary Jane Merry, staff writer; and the author, James R. Warren, administrative vice-president, with back to camera.

Comprehensiveness May Depend On Public Relations

Seattle Community College Actively Promotes Its Lesser Known Courses and Gets High Enrollment

By James R. Warren

A metropolitan community college cannot be truly comprehensive without a strong public relations program to sell the concept, develop the image, and communicate information about programs.

That tendency of community colleges to drift toward domination by the college transfer programs or any other curriculum area may be the result of insufficient exposure of the comprehensive aspects of the institution.

To state the concept positively: a community college in a metropolitan area, to maintain comprehensiveness, must develop strong public relations activities to assure enrollment in the many diverse program offerings.

Assuming that valid planning has resulted in a curriculum that truly meets the educational needs of a community, it follows that proper promotion should generate a balanced enrollment. Without proper promotion, with the great masses of potential students flooding the college admissions office, and with enrollment limited by state funding, the programs most commonly understood (such as college transfer), the programs with the most status (such as data processing and the medical technologies), and the programs receiving most attention in the mass media (such as speed reading), may attract more than their share of students to the detriment of the less obvious programs (such as drycleaning), newer programs (such as wind tunnel model making), and programs which seemingly lack status (such as power sewing).

Every Man's College

When certain programs fail to attract students, a community college is not succeeding in its role as every man's college. To meet the training needs of every man, a fully comprehensive program is required.

Also, without a comprehensive program, the college is unable to fill the manpower demands of business and industry. Their requirements for trained personnel cover a wide spectrum.

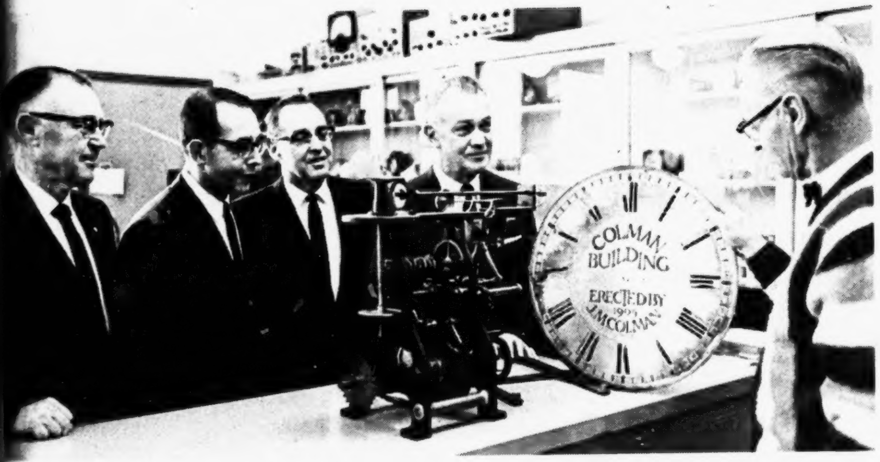
Every area of a community college will feel the results of public relations work. Seattle Community College offers basic skills classes for adults—elementary level classes in reading, writing, and arithmetic. How is it possible to communicate with adults who read little or not at all? The Public Relations Department has developed several avenues—through community service agencies who work with these people, through students enrolled in the classes, through a simply written brochure, and through general information releases. Hundreds of functionally illiterate adults have enrolled.

Seattle Community College's adult high school of more than 2,500 students is also a success in part because of the public relations efforts.

At the other end of the educational spectrum, associate degree programs may require considerable promotion, especially those in new technical fields, if they are to attract the enrollment necessary to become operational.

Prior to registration time, our Public Relations Department begins a series of meetings, examining potential weak spots in enrollment. Concentration on the programs needing a "push" invariably results in greater public interest in these programs. One quarter, for instance, our business and commerce enrollment was down slightly, but a public relations effort to describe the opportunities in this area helped raise the enrollment to a new high the next quarter.

Courses new to the curriculum also require con-



As part of the community relations program at Seattle Community College, state legislators and leading businessmen are taken to lunch and on tours by administrators. Representatives Audley F. Mahaffey and Richard Chapin, President Ed K. Erickson and Irvine B. Rabel, president, Star Machinery Company, chat with Hans Jorgensen, watch repair and instrumentation instructor.

siderable effort to start them off in a healthy condition. Recently, when a short course in cashier-checker training was offered, brief articles in all daily and weekly newspapers, a radio-spot campaign, and letters to prospective employers, to the state and federal employment services, and to other agencies filled, not one, but five classes, and new classes have been starting every two weeks since.

On the other hand, we were forced to cancel several personal improvement and hobby courses because of not enough lead-time to plan and implement promotional campaigns.

Consider the Audience

Other curriculum areas that need extra attention from the public relations staff are those that are unusual, or those with limited appeal. Carefully conceived promotional materials must communicate the right message, in the right form, to the right audience, at the right time. Otherwise, much effort can be expended and the classes still fail to attract students.

Conversely, in addition to promotion of individual programs, the community college faces the chore of developing a unified image. This image is necessary if legislators, business and industry leaders, and the general public are to adequately understand and support the institution.

Here is one example of how we have attacked this problem. To implant the image of Seattle Community College in the minds of leading citizens of the area, a series of on-campus meetings was arranged. In small groups of four or five, most of the forty state legislators from King County and many Seattle business leaders and city officials recently have enjoyed lunch at Seattle Community College, have been escorted on short tours, and have heard explanations of the college's comprehensive role from the president or administrative vice-president.

Our catalog itself is a document intended to display our image as a unified, friendly, student-oriented, and very comprehensive community college.

The comprehensive community college, then, must not only communicate with prospective students about the individual programs available, but also must develop for its public the image of the entire college in all its complex unity.

This job cannot be done by administrators in their spare time, nor can it be done by instructors on a part-time basis, though all should be involved. In a comprehensive metropolitan college system, specialists, experienced in the use of mass media and community relations activities, are needed to execute long-range plans which will reach prescribed goals.

Staffing is critical. Seattle's public relations staff is under the guidance of the administrative vice-president who earned his living in radio and television for ten years before returning to the educational field. The coordinator of mass media has experience as a newspaper reporter on a large daily paper and as a community college instructor. She is assisted, on a part-time basis, by a former weekly newspaper editor. The coordinator of publications had experience with industrial and educational publications. He is assisted by a former minister who helps to disseminate information and to sense public sentiment via various social agencies, churches, schools, clubs, and other community service organizations. In addition, two alert and able secretaries (one formerly worked for a community newspaper and the other was a secretary in a large business firm), have the ability to prepare materials when the need arises.

Because the department was weak in the layout area, a graphic artist was employed on a retainer fee. A photographer who works part time for the college schedules about four hours each week with the public relations staff.

Although Seattle Community College is in temporary quarters scattered all over the city, nearly 17,000 students (6,500 F.T.E.) have enrolled in the hundreds of classes offered this quarter. By 1975, predictions are that 45,000 students will be attending classes on three new campuses. Each of these campuses will offer a comprehensive program.

As Ed K. Erickson, president, explained in a recent statement to the Board of Trustees: "Seattle Community College could not long remain a truly comprehensive institution without the unceasing efforts of an experienced and energetic public relations department."

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EDITORS' NOTE: Individuals interested in an additional source of information which may be of considerable help are referred to The Community Junior College: An Annotated Bibliography which lists most of the junior college literature from 1961 through 1967. It describes the major ideas of each author and reviews related books under each chapter heading. It is available at $2.50 from Ohio State University Publications Sales, 2500 Kenny Road, Columbus, Ohio 43210.

The ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) Clearinghouse for Junior College Information has available a great wealth of research material on all phases of two-year college operations. The type of information desired should be designated. Write to ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information, 96 Powell Library Building, University of California at Los Angeles, Los Angeles, California 90024.

AAJC PUBLICATIONS

Quantity Title

———Extending Campus Resources: Guide to Using and Selecting Clinical Facilities for Health Technology Programs
1968
28 pages
75 cents

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